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THE AMERICAN REVIEWOS OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

SEPTEMBER, 1911 (1)

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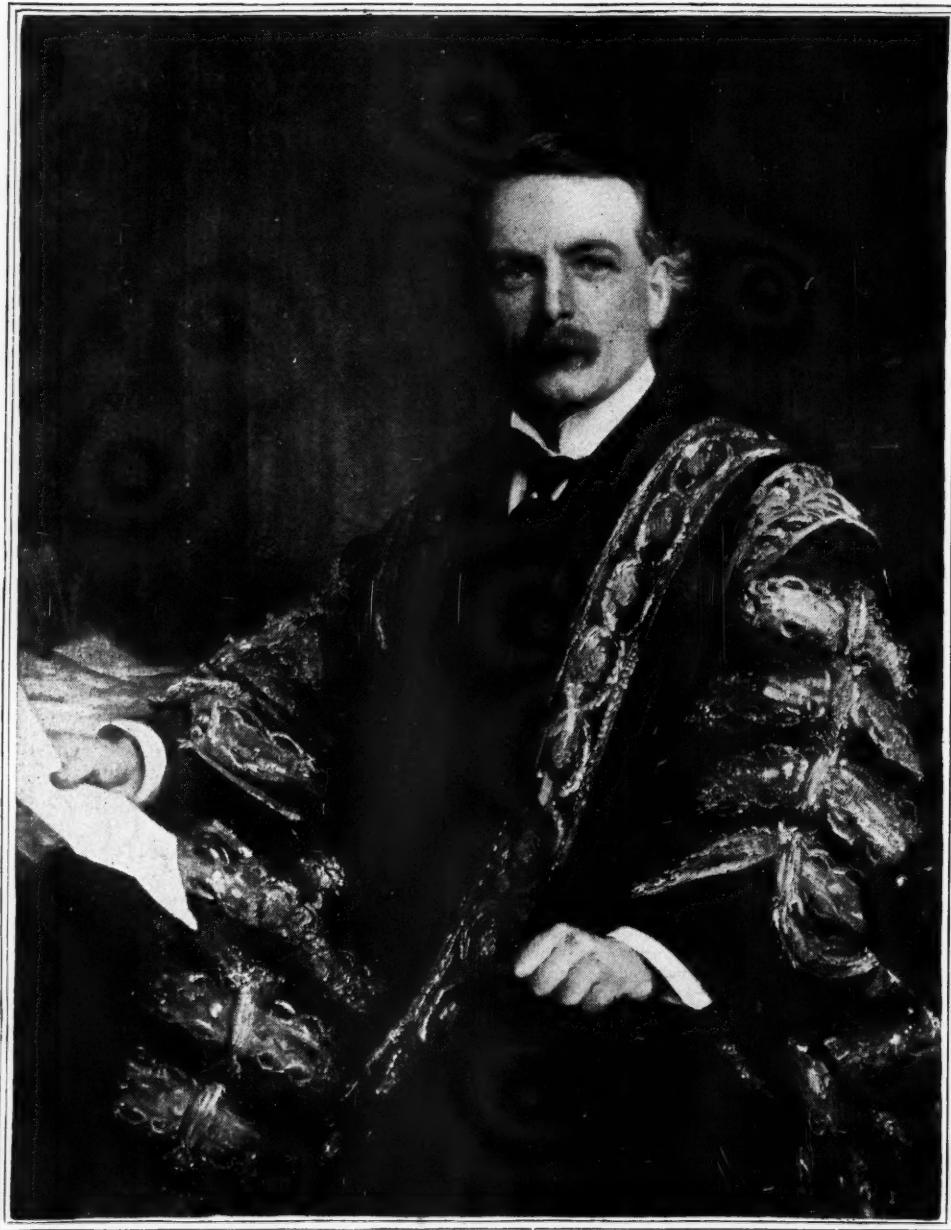
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DAVID LLOYD-GEORGE, THE MAN OF THE HOUR IN GREAT BRITAIN

The Chancellor of the British Exchequer, David Lloyd-George, author of the revolutionary budget of 1909 which resulted in the reform of the House of Lords, last month was the chief instrument in bringing about one of the greatest victories achieved by the Liberal Government, the pacific settlement of the great transportation strike. To Mr. Lloyd-George, as originator of the conciliation scheme of 1907, is due most of the credit for averting a serious industrial war throughout the United Kingdom. He was the untiring mediator between the companies and the workmen. By his statements to Parliament and his interviews with the railway managers and the men, he secured a triumph after all others seemed to have given up hope. This portrait is reproduced from the painting by Sir Luke Fildes.

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THE AMERICAN 1911

REVIEW OF REVIEWS

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD

A Session of Much Achievement It is one thing for a Republican President to call a Democratic Congress in extra session; and it is quite a different thing to persuade that Congress to accept a program prepared for it by the head of the opposition party. So Congress did not meekly adjourn at the successive dates fixed from the outside, and statesmen were deprived of their much-needed vacations. There was no public demand for an extra session. On the contrary, there was well-nigh unanimous opposition to the idea. The only friends of an extra session were the newspapers, considered in their private capacity as users of print paper. In their public capacity—as expressing general opinion—they could make no showing for an extra session. But Congress, having been brought to Washington at great inconvenience some eight months ahead of the regular date, for the purpose of changing the tariff as respects paper and wood pulp, could not well face the country if it had forgotten all about the promises made in the elections of last November. It has remembered, and its record of achievement is remarkable.

Some Recent Tariff History Mr. Taft had been elected President in 1908 on the pledge to give the country a proper revision of the tariff. He had called the Republican Congress into extra session in the spring of 1909 for this express purpose. If he had then made one-tenth of the effort to secure a good tariff bill that he has now been making to pass a comparatively small tariff measure in the form of an arrangement with Canada, we should probably have had an acceptable measure in place of the Payne-Aldrich law as it stands. Even an explicit and definite message to Congress at that time, setting forth the nature and extent of a reasonable tariff revision, would have been a rallying

point for the consumers and general public of the country, as against special protected interests and the claims of localities. Now, in 1911, every proposal to revise a tariff schedule has been met in advance with the contemptuous announcement that all bills would be vetoed. Yet, as matters stand, the Democrats are in overwhelming majority in Congress, while the public opinion back of them demanding tariff revision not only includes all the Democrats of the country, but also includes a majority of the Republicans. In 1908 President Taft and a Republican Congress were elected on the same day under pledges made in the party platform and in countless campaign speeches to give the country a prompt and real revision and reduction of the most extravagantly high tariff system that any country in the world had ever devised.

What Should Have Been The President was in a position to see that his own party,—being in full control of both houses of Congress,—did its duty at that time. No one had ever before so strongly asserted the theory that the President of the United States is the leader and master of his own party.

On this assumption, there was the plain and unmistakable duty in the spring of 1909 to relieve the country, and to save the party from wreck and ruin, by leading the movement for true tariff revision. Then was the time for plain talk, and, if necessary, for veto messages. Coöperation with those Republicans in Congress who were working for reasonable reduction of duties while retaining the protectionist character of the tariff, would have resulted in a revision that would presumably have been acceptable to the country for a number of years. Following such a revision, it would have been the duty and policy of the Republican party to set up a tariff board or a tariff commission which



DID HE STAND PAT?
From the *Constitution* (Atlanta)

should prepare the way for a gradual, deliberate, future revision of a more thoroughgoing kind than we have ever undertaken in the United States. All this was as clear as daylight to those who saw the situation in some calmness and perspective.

What Really Happened But, unluckily for the Republican party and its leadership, everything was seen as through dense fogs. The Payne-Aldrich bill was log-rolled through Congress, and the broad sentiment of the country and the Republican party found no expression except in the debating of a group of able men who were thereupon called "insurgents" and were pilloried for having been true to their convictions and to common sense. The leadership of the party was not content with accepting the Payne-Aldrich tariff, but the measure was extravagantly praised before the country for its merits, and the Republican Senators who had opposed it were subjected to persecution. And what was the verdict of public opinion? The Democrats swept the country in the Congressional elections of November, 1910. The only element of the Republican party that fared at all well in those elections was the element which had demanded proper tariff revision, and had in consequence been put under the ban of the Administration's disfavor. If ever a party was given a clear mandate by the

people at the polls, the Democrats were instructed to revise the tariff when they carried the country last fall. Even Mr. Taft had pronounced the wool and cotton schedules as "indefensible." The action of the Democratic House in revising these schedules has had clearer public favor, and less popular opposition, than any tariff reductions that have been attempted in this country in more than half a century.

The Compromise Wool Bill

All such enactments are of necessity based upon compromise. There is no way to make them final or minutely perfect. Reductions have to be based upon existing rates and general conditions. There was no pretense, therefore, that the Wool bill, as sent up to the President, was a perfect measure. What could be said for it was that in large part it got rid of the glaring imperfections of the Payne-Aldrich bill. The Underwood committee of the House had passed a bill on June 20,—as already described in these pages,—the vote at that time being 220 in favor of the bill and 100 against it. Twenty-three Republicans voted for it, and 32 Republicans were absent. Many Republicans voted against it as a matter of party tactics, though recognizing the fact that the country demanded the measure with something like unanimity. It will be remembered that Republican leaders in the Senate confidently predicted that all tariff reform measures would die in the House, and that they never could be reported out of the Senate Finance Committee. Our readers will further remember how the Progressive Republican Senators, acting with the Democrats, compelled the Finance Committee to report bills and to permit votes to be taken. The Democratic Senators did not agree to support the House bill in its exact terms, but on July 27, under the leadership of Senator La Follette, who had himself introduced a Wool bill as a substitute, a compromise Wool bill was carried through the Senate by a vote of 48 to 32, no Democrat voting against the bill. Eleven Republicans (Messrs. Bourne, Bristow, Clapp, Crawford, Cummins, Kenyon, La Follette, McCumber, Nelson, Poindexter, and Works) voted in the affirmative.

Nature of the Agreement

The existing average rate of duty on wools is about 44 per cent. The Underwood bill as originally passed in the House reduced the duty to 20 per cent. The compromise measure, as carried through the Senate with the help of Mr. La Follette and the Progressives, fixed

the duty at 35 per cent. It was freely predicted by those who wanted nothing done, that there could be no agreement reached in conference committee between the two houses. But Mr. Underwood and Senator La Follette, after several days of very honorable and creditable negotiation, settled upon 29 per cent. as the compromise figure they would recommend to their respective houses. This was an admirable piece of work performed in the true spirit of government by concession and compromise as to details, where neither side sacrificed any principle. Taking the compromise report back to the House, Mr. Underwood wasted very little time in talk. He said that the bill as agreed upon would save the American people 34 per cent. of the tax they now pay on manufactures of wool. Mr. Underwood declared: "We can well afford to pass this bill and send it to the President, in order that we may get some relief, even if it does not entirely express our views on this question." Thus, on August 14, the House agreed to the conference report by a vote of 206 to 90. On the following day the Senate adopted the report by a vote of 38 to 28, the Democrats standing solidly for it, and the Progressive Republicans, Bristow, Clapp, Crawford, Cummins, La Follette, Poindexter, and Works, taking the same position.

*A Moderate,
Practical
Bill*

There are vast numbers of people who believe that raw wool ought to be put on the free list at once, and that the manufactures of wool such as ordinary clothing (which in the bill as passed are reduced from an average rate of 90 to an average of 48) ought to be admitted from abroad at a rate much lower than the one agreed upon by Congress. But, on the other hand, there are vast numbers of people who think that the sheep-raising and wool-growing interests of the country have a right to the continuance, for some years at least, of a moderate protective tariff; and that the labor employed in woolen manufactures is further entitled to some protection. The Payne-Aldrich bill not merely recognized the claims of those who wished protection, but kept the rates excessively high. The new bill sent to the President for his signature in the middle of August represented a large reduction, but was not a destructive or unstatesmanlike measure. It could not well have prostrated a great industry. It did not recklessly abandon an established policy. It represented practical statesmanship, and seemed entitled to the favor that the public instinctively accorded to it.

*The Grounds
for a
Veto*

It would have seemed a broader and more statesmanlike thing for Mr. Taft to permit such a measure to become a law, than to block it by the interposition of a veto. Yet it had everywhere been announced, without contradiction from the White House, that the President would veto any tariff bills whatsoever that Congress should send to him. Such a position on the part of a President is so unusual that it ought to find its justification in real things rather than in mere arguments or forms of words. Nobody supposes that Congress, in passing this wool bill, was accomplishing a permanent or final result. It was simply offering the country a much better wool schedule than the one that exists. It was, furthermore, enacting its measure by overwhelming majorities which had received fresh mandate from the people, and which had been growing rather than losing in public favor. For it is an unmistakable fact that the Democratic party is well pleased with the way in which its present representatives in Congress have been doing business; and it is an equally unmistakable fact, furthermore, that millions of Republicans and independents have a much better opinion at this time of the Democratic Congress, and much less dread of its possible unwisdom, than they had at the time when it convened in April. This is a party situation that is not usual in our political history.

*The Message
of Veto as
Sent*

President Taft's message vetoing the bill was sent to Congress on August 17. It had been carefully prepared well in advance, the action of Congress having been expected. It is an exceedingly well-phrased message, lawyer-like and argumentative. From beginning to end it takes the tone of the wise and dispassionate teacher, correcting the whole school, under circumstances where the teacher's mere statement is conclusive on its face. The teacher's discourse shows the scholars their inexperience and their silly precipitancy. They are put in fools' caps and exhibited for their own best good. It is as though it were a problem in algebra, the teacher knowing how to find the right answer, —next December, but not in summer-vacation time. Congress is reminded that if it will just have the goodness to wait until December, a tariff board of Mr. Taft's appointment will give Congress all the information it could possibly need to enable it to act intelligently about the wool schedule, the cotton schedule, and several other schedules.

As a matter of admirable phrasing, the message is a model. Its tone is perfect, as is its dialektical method. But whether or not there is good ground for its assumptions is left wholly unsettled by the message. What reason is there to suppose that in exactly three months from now several modest gentlemen, whose names the public does not know, working under the direction of a Republican administration, can flood the whole complex tariff situation with a brilliant illumination, so that everybody may see clearly that one thing rather than another thing is what ought to be done?

Facts Versus Assumptions

The truth is, that Congress in both houses contains a great many men who have some knowledge and understanding of the tariff. And at the present moment the country is dealing with tariff policies as well as with detailed facts. The tariff board,—in its somewhat tedious, official way,—can and doubtless will give us useful information about several of the tariff schedules. But the fundamental facts upon which general tariff opinions have been formed by Republicans and Democrats will not this year be affected, unless in the smallest degree, by the statistics of the tariff board. We know the difference between a mountain and a valley, even when we do not know within a few feet the height of the mountain or the depth of the depression. Mr. Taft's message proceeds upon the assumption that his tariff board can find out the exact measure of difference between the cost of things at home and abroad, and can indicate further what would be a proper differential to protect the higher wages of American workmen and to allow a profit on American capital engaged in manufacturing. Undoubtedly a tariff board can help to confirm the views already held by those who are well informed and impartial. But is there anybody who believes that as respects the wool schedule, the cotton schedule, the iron and steel schedule, the chemical schedules, and several others, the tariff board's reports will affect the action of the great Democratic majority in the present House, or will make a difference to the extent of a single vote in the alignments and coalitions of the present Senate chamber?

Forgetting Last November

We have no disposition to discredit the present tariff board.

Having taken an energetic part in the work that led to the creation of this board, the REVIEW should be the very last to

undervalue its work. Yet it is plain that the board is making its investigations without express sanction of law, Congress having definitely assigned it other duties while refusing to sanction those it is performing. Regardless of its technically false position, the board is undoubtedly doing conscientious work, although it is to be said again that tariff inquiries ought to be made at the behest of Congress rather than at the behest of the President. The large fact that Mr. Taft seems to ignore is that the country last fall expressed itself as favoring a rapid general lowering of the tariff rates at the hands of a Democratic Congress, rather than a slow and so-called "scientific" treatment of the subject by a tariff board under Republican direction. The Administration asks the country to look upon Democratic tariff revision as purely a political play. The Democrats, in turn, profess to regard the veto as play for political position on the part of the chief candidate for the Republican nomination next year. Of course there is politics on both sides. It simply happens that the country has gone Democratic, and the Democrats are playing the political game demanded by the American people, while the President would seem to be obstructive. Yet this does not completely sum up the situation.

Delay Can Do Little Harm

A more just view might be expressed somewhat as follows:

The country did not expect any tariff legislation until next winter. An extra session was neither expected nor desired, and the Democrats had supposed that they would have all the time until the regular session next December to get their tariff bills ready. The same men who have been passing these tariff bills in August will come back to the regular session in December. The tariff board can well make a report—of the only kind that it can make at all—within a comparatively short time. It will be under obligation at the very opening of the session to have its reports ready on several schedules. Unless the tariff board should find out a lot of startling things that nobody else knows about (and it is not intimated that the tariff board has any surprises in store), it is difficult to believe that the Democrats under the leadership of Speaker Clark and Chairman Underwood will do anything by way of material change from that which they have been doing in the special session. Nor is there any reason to suppose that the members of the Senate three months from now will be disposed to act in a different way. No Demo-



READY FOR WHATEVER IS COMING HIS WAY

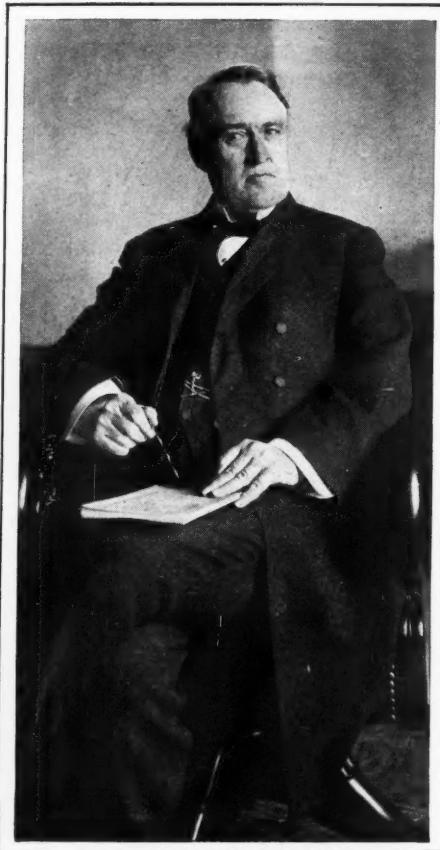
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)

ocratic Senators have said that they felt puzzled and embarrassed for lack of the aid of Professor Emery's board. Neither have the Progressive Republican Senators intimated that they were acting tentatively, and that their opinions and votes were subject to change when the tariff board should disclose its accumulating secrets. On the other hand, some of the regular Republicans have excused themselves for voting against the tariff bills by saying that for their part they should like to see the reports of the tariff board. Some of these regular Republicans, when in the first week of December they read those reports, may perchance be converted to the Underwood-LaFollette program. (Some of Mr. Underwood's qualities as a leader are considered elsewhere in this REVIEW.)

What December May Bring Forth

Thus there is a pretty good chance that exact information, tabulated by the tariff board, may increase the number of votes in favor of the reform bills, while there is no reason to think that the work of the tariff board can lead any man back to the "stand-pat" position who has now voted for the reduction measures. Meanwhile public opinion will have some further opportunities to express itself, and Congress will have a little more time in which to consider and mature its program. The bills that have been passed through both houses by large

majorities will give all interests affected by them due notice to be in readiness for change. The conference bill would have put the wool measure into effect on October 1. If Congress so desires, it can repass the Wool bill early in December with a view to its taking effect soon after the beginning of the year. If Mr. Taft should then veto it, his veto would have to rest upon the essential facts, rather than upon the idea that Congress should first see some statistics. Although the consumers who have waited many years for a reduction of the woollen rates may see no reason for delay, nevertheless no great harm can come. The Democrats will have the better chance to decide exactly what policy they ought to pursue. The country will express itself again in November of next year upon the tariff history of the preceding four years. The Democrats, in order to be sure of public approval, must have a moderate but clean-cut program, and must put their program through the House with rapidity and harmony in the winter session. They must also try as far as possible to hold the support of their Democratic Senators. It will be for the Democrats themselves to decide whether, in the long session next year, they will make compromises in order to secure Republican Progressive support. From the political standpoint, there are good reasons on both sides of that question.



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SENATOR OVERMAN, OF NORTH CAROLINA
 (Whose revision of the chemical schedule was added to the Cotton bill by the Senate's vote—27 to 22, thus constituting the first Democratic victory in the Senate for many years)

The Veto and the Majorities

The President's message vetoing the Wool bill, as we have said, was read in the House on August 17. Mr. Underwood at once announced that he would not ask to have the veto message referred to the Ways and Means Committee, but would call it up for action on the following morning, with a view to passing the bill by the necessary two-thirds vote over the President's veto. It was a question of the attitude of the thirty or more Republicans who had originally voted with the Democrats in favor of the bill. It was commonly supposed that the bill would pass the House over the veto of the President, but that it would lack a little of the necessary two-thirds in the Senate. It was sure, of course, to have a decisive majority in both houses, but the Constitution required that in order to pass

a bill over the President's head there must be an affirmative two-thirds vote in each House. The vote in the House on August 18 on the Wool bill was 227 to 129, five members voting "present"; on the Free List it was 226 to 127, two members voting "present." Thus the bills each failed to receive a two-thirds vote of the members present.

The Tactics of Evacuation

After the President's veto message had been received, some of the stand-pat Republicans in the Senate, acting on behalf of the Administration, hit upon a new way to deal with the plans of Senator La Follette and other Progressives for extending the session. By refusing to take part in the proceedings, they allowed the Democrats to obtain unobstructed control of the Senate. Thus the Democrats did not need to defer to the views of their temporary allies, the Progressives. Senator La Follette had practically compelled the Democrats to take his Wool bill; but aid from Messrs. Penrose and the regulars enabled the Democrats to ignore the La Follette Cotton bill, and pass unamended the Underwood Cotton bill as it had come from the House. Senator Cummins' bill revising the steel and iron schedule was adopted in the technical form of an amendment to the Cotton bill. The chemical schedule was reduced 25 per cent., cotton mill machinery was subjected to a great reduction of duties, and so on. And thus, rather unexpectedly, on August 18 it became certain that a considerable amount of tariff legislation would promptly follow the Wool bill, and be sent to Mr. Taft with the certainty that it would be met with a veto message. On the following day the Senate and House leaders reached an agreement for adjourning the session on Tuesday, August 22.

Delaying Statehood

Behind the political scenes, the delays over the admission of Arizona and New Mexico are regarded as relating to their participation in the Presidential election next year. The Democrats are much more eager than the Republicans to get Arizona and New Mexico safely established as members of the family of States. It will be remembered that they had already been admitted, except for the final steps. They were to form State constitutions, and these were to be submitted for approval at Washington. The President was then to proclaim their compliance with all conditions. The constitution of New Mexico readily passed muster with the wise and the conservative at Washington, although it was

open to some very serious criticism. The constitution of Arizona, however, was received with protestations of horror. The people of Arizona had taken a fancy to certain new and experimental methods in popular government. They had decided to put into their constitution the initiative, the referendum, and the recall. Washington sneered at the initiative, sniffed at the referendum, and had spasms over the recall. It was bad enough for the people of Arizona to recall other elected officers whose official conduct they did not like; but to recall their elected judges would be subversive of justice and ruinous in ways that it requires a great many words to set forth. To be sure, several other States have adopted this plan under which the people may vote upon the question whether or not they are satisfied to keep in office a judge who has got there already by being voted upon. Intimate knowledge of the way in which a great many judges have been nominated and elected in different States of the Union would hardly seem to justify the alarm that has been raised against an orderly method by which the people could raise a question as to the conduct of men on the bench.

*The Veto
for
Timid Judges* Nobody dreams of molesting good judges in States that already provide the possibility of the recall. Any judge who goes on the bench is fairly deemed to be a man of intelligence, who understands the nature of judicial duties. The unjust judge is a miserable rogue. In vetoing the Statehood bill, President Taft on August 15 declared that "the character of judges would deteriorate to that of trimmers and time servers, and independent judicial action would be a thing of the past," —if the recall were allowed. This would seem to be purely a theoretical opinion, based upon nothing that experience has shown to be true. If there is any value in the arguments against the recall of judges, let it be remembered that conservative legal opinion has always used precisely those arguments against the election of judges by popular vote and for fixed terms. The very idea of electing a judge is shocking to the conservative mind. Lawyers of Mr. Taft's way of thinking have always and everywhere believed in the appointment of judges for life. But this requires more confidence in the officials who would have to exercise the appointing power than is generally felt by the plain people. The only safety for a judge is to do his duty intelligently and in a judicial spirit. It is not good judges who will ever



PRESIDENT TAFT: "Go back and think it over, my boy"
From the *Tribune* (New York)

be in the least afraid that some of their fellow-citizens might try at some time to have them recalled. There is no place in the United States where it would be possible to break down a really high-class judge by getting his neighbors and fellow-citizens to vote him out of office because they did not like his decision in a particular case.

Arizona Will Decide in the End We have not the least fault to find with some of our ablest and best Senators, who have made strong arguments against the recall of judges. Their arguments ought really to have been made against the admission of New Mexico and Arizona. For, as soon as you admit New Mexico and Arizona, you confer upon them the undisputed right to recall their judges or to do anything else they please. And it is an exceedingly curious thing that statesmen at Washington should have been fairly tumbling over one another to demand the admission of Arizona and New Mexico, while they were prepared to dispute the discretion of Arizona and New Mexico in details. Senator Beveridge, as chairman of the Committee on Territories, did not believe that Arizona and New Mexico were ripe for admission. His position was a sincere one. He sustained it for years, and finally relinquished it, and allowed the admission bill to go through, in deference to the wishes and demands of the administration. But political exigencies have greatly changed since the

elections of last November; and there is shorter haul to Reno was that the rate for much less urgency from the Republican standpoint about giving more electoral votes to the Southwest. Congress itself did not like the item of the recall of judges, and therefore hit upon a sensible amendment. Arizona was to be admitted immediately upon agreeing to submit the recall proposition separately to a vote of the people. This ought to be acceptable enough to anybody, for the manifest reason that wherever in their future as a State, the people of Arizona wish to recall their judges, they will be at liberty to confer that privilege upon themselves. There are many of us who care much less for political machinery than for the way in which it is used. This magazine has not been ardent in demanding the initiative, the referendum, or the recall, while being very willing to see all these things tried, in order that experience may test their value. If the people of Arizona are indeed fit for Statehood, and if they should be allowed to send two Senators to Washington to help govern the entire country, they must surely be regarded as competent to settle for themselves the various details of their domestic government.

The Long-and-Short-Haul Decision

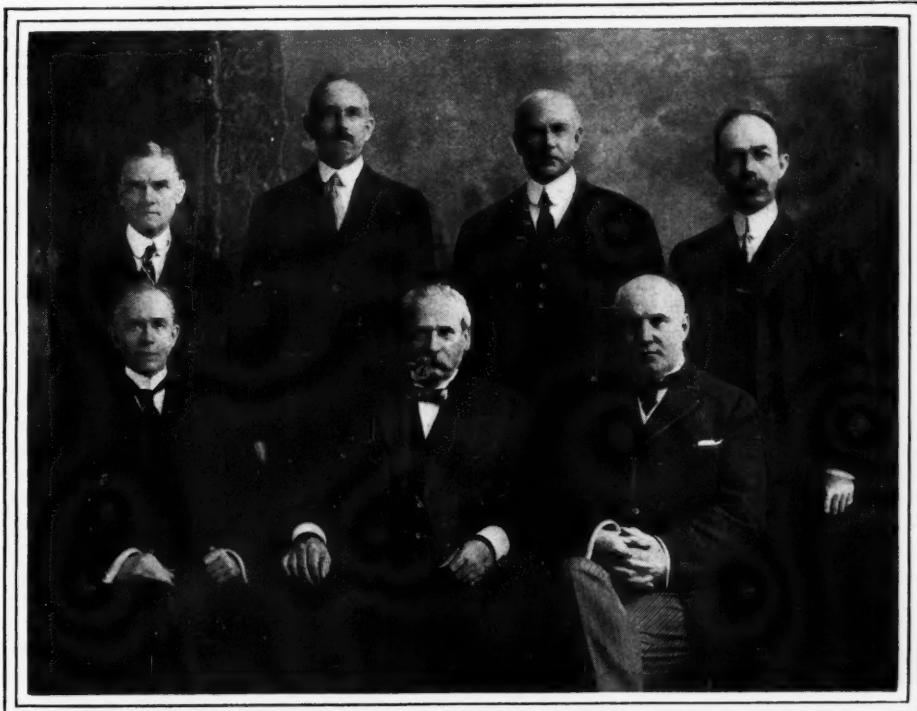
The decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission in the so-called long-and-short-haul freight rate case, the final orders on which were announced on August 10, is both important and puzzling in railroad economy and in the industrial development of different geographical sections of the United States. The merits of this controversy between shippers and carriers have been discussed for twenty years. Recently the controversy became acute through the protests of such "intermountain" western cities as Reno and Spokane against the freight rates charged on shipments to them from eastern points. The railroads have charged a higher rate from an eastern point to these cities than from the same eastern point to the Pacific Coast. For instance, the rate on a carload of freight from the East to Reno would be \$400, while if carried from the same point on through to San Francisco the rate would be only \$275. The principle of this lower charge at coast points was the necessity of meeting at San Francisco water competition, and the lower rates possible for water carriage. Thus, the theoretical principle on which the railroad based its rate of \$275 for a carload of freight to San Francisco was that if it charged more than \$275, the freight would go by water, and the theory of the \$400 rate for the

hauling the freight by train to Reno, after it had reached San Francisco on a water rate basis, should be added to that water rate. The Pacific Coast cities have enjoyed this advantage over intermountain cities, and have opposed any change in the rate-making system. The complaints to the Interstate Commerce Commission coming from the intermountain cities have been based on the Mann-Elkins act, passed last year, which prohibits carriers from charging more for the transportation of passengers or property "for a shorter than for a longer distance over the same line," except as allowed to do so by the Commerce Commission.

The Commission's on the reasonableness of freight Presumption rates per se, but on the discriminatory features of the present practice of charging more for a haul to Reno, for instance, than for a haul to the Pacific Coast. Yet the commission has been forced to accept the basic principle of the long-and-short-haul theory of the railroads, and simply changes the ratio of increase of the short-haul charge over the long-haul, changing it in such a way that it is difficult to see how the railroads can evade a considerable loss of revenue. Briefly, the commission provides for five longitudinal zones lying east of St. Paul and the Missouri River. On the theory that the farther west traffic originates, the less it has to meet water competition from coast to coast, the commission allows a rate on freight originating in the zone on the Atlantic seaboard to be 25 per cent. higher to an intermountain point than for the longer haul to the Pacific, and the allowable increase of short-haul rate grows less with each zone, moving west, until when freight originates west of the Missouri, no higher rate can be charged for the short haul than for the long haul to the Pacific.

The Plight of the Railroads

Thus the water competition rates to the Pacific Coast are still the basis of the charge that may be made on freight from New Haven to Spokane. But, with the differential much reduced, the railroad is faced not only with a present loss of revenue, due to the lower rates to the intermountain points, but is faced also with the probability of an increased rate competition following the opening of the Panama Canal. It is a puzzling situation for the carriers, because they are apparently disbarred from a suc-



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THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION AS NOW CONSTITUTED

(Standing, left to right: F. A. Clark, B. H. Meyer, J. S. Harlan, C. C. McChord. Sitting, left to right: C. A. Prouty, Judson C. Clements [chairman], F. K. Lane)

cessful appeal, on the score of the decision being confiscatory, by the fact that the commission has set no definite rates, but simply the percentages that can be added to the water competition rates. A large, important, and involved consideration is the effect that the new order will have on the business development of the geographical areas that are concerned. Mr. Louis D. Brandeis, who acted as counsel for the shippers of the Atlantic seaboard in the arguments before the commission, considers that the result is serious for the Pacific Coast cities, and that it will seriously impair their jobbing business in the intermountain region, while helping Chicago and Middle-Western cities. Mr. Brandeis also believes the decision will, if it stands, result in a large development of the coastwise merchant marine between the principal cities of the Atlantic seaboard and the Pacific Coast.

*A Bad
Report of
the Crops*

The Government's crop report of August 8 showed the ravages of the fearful drought and heat which assailed the country in July. The

results of these untoward weather conditions are shown in a loss in condition sustained in July, of no less than 10 per cent. in the corn crop and of 11 per cent. in wheat. This report is the final one in the critical time of the growing agricultural products, and it is possible now to take stock of the year's harvests with certainty. It is plain that there will be no "bumper" crops except cotton, that the hay crop will probably be the smallest in fifteen years, that the yield of oats is very bad, having been smaller only three times in the last ten years, and that there is a real crop failure in potatoes, although the late planted fields, which have received the benefit of recent rains, may qualify the failure to some extent. As for corn, the yield per acre will be only 23 bushels, as compared with the average yield of 27 bushels, but the acreage this year is so large that it will remain true that the total crop will be large, exceeded only five times in the history of the country. The wheat yield per acre will this year fall from the ten years' average of 14.7 bushels to 12.8 bushels, but the wheat acreage, too, is unusually large, and the total crop will fall only some twelve mil-

lion bushels below the ten years' average. The intensely hot and dry weather which has thus cut down so suddenly the crop promise of the previous month extended over a vast area of the United States, and was most serious in the great farm section between New York and Pennsylvania, on the East, and the Rocky Mountains on the West. The Pacific Northwest has suffered less than other sections, and continues to have excellent crop prospects, in spite of hot weather in July. The Southern States, too, have been helped by plentiful rains, with the exception of North Carolina and Virginia.

The Greatest Crop of Cotton The bright spot in the agricultural year is the splendid cotton crop, which now promises to be more than 14,700,000 bales. The largest production before came in 1904, in which year the yield was less than this year by more than 1,000,000 bales, which gives some idea of the phenomenal character of this year's crop. Should cotton sell this year at the same average price it brought in 1910, the value of the 1911 crop would be slightly more than \$1,000,000,000; if the price recedes to the average figure of the past five years, 11.5 cents per pound, the cotton raisers will still receive the enormous sum of \$800,000,000.

Vast Increase in Farm Values The Census Bureau has recently made a report on the farm values of to-day in the United States, as compared with the values of ten years ago, that makes a most remarkable showing. In 1900 the agricultural land of the country was valued, in round figures, at \$13,000,000,000. In the ten following years it increased in value no less than 118 per cent. to \$28,000,000,000. Including the buildings and agricultural equipment, the total value now is nearly \$36,000,000,000, as compared with \$17,000,000,000 in 1900. In the number of farms, there has been an increase from 5,737,372 to 6,340,120, or 11 per cent. The area tilled increased from 835,092,000 acres to 873,703,000, or 5 per cent.,—an interesting figure as showing the tendency toward smaller average holdings. The average value per acre of our farms was, in 1900, \$15.60, and in 1910, \$32.50 per acre. The movement toward the use of improved farm machinery is reflected in the increase of the value of agricultural implements from \$750,000,000 in 1900 to \$1,260,000,000 ten years later. Thus, while the total acreage tilled increased only 5 per cent., the value of implements used in tilling increased 68 per cent.

The Harvests of the World Canada is the lucky country this year in her farming business. Western Canada has a bountiful and excellent wheat crop, and the condition of the crop for the whole Dominion is put at 90, as against only 77 last year. With a largely increased acreage as well, Canada's will be the prize wheat crop of 1911. The conditions of heat and drought which in July affected the grain fields of the United States so unfavorably, seem to have attacked farmers in nearly all parts of the world. As a result, the European wheat crop will be smaller than last year, in spite of fine yields in Italy and Spain. Even in Western Siberia and Eastern Russia there was the same story of insufficient moisture, and considerably reduced wheat yields. In Argentina and the other grain-raising areas of South America, the promise for the cereals is fair, but their harvests are as yet several months in the future.

Investigating the Trusts While the Standard Oil Company and the American Tobacco Company have been struggling with the task of disintegrating their great structures and reconstituting them to agree with the Supreme Court's "rule of reason," the other two of the most famous quartet of American "Trusts," the American Sugar Refining Company and the United States Steel Corporation have been undergoing investigation at the hands of special committees of the lower house of Congress. The Hardwick Committee, investigating the Sugar Refining Company, examined such notable witnesses as Mr. John E. Parsons, the veteran lawyer and the actual builder of the Sugar Trust; Mr. John Arbuckle, the powerful and bitter competitor of the American Refining Company, and Mr. Horace Havemeyer, son of the late H. O. Havemeyer, whose dominance in the industry was the chief subject at most of the hearings. But the most picturesque and unusual of all the investigations came when the Stanley Committee of the House brought before it not only Chairman Gary of the Steel Corporation, and Mr. George W. Perkins, head of the Corporation's finance committee, but ex-President Roosevelt himself. Mr. Roosevelt was called to testify as to the part he played, during his Presidency, in allowing the absorption of the Tennessee Coal and Iron Company by the Steel Corporation, at the height of the panic of 1907. It will be remembered that the managers of the Steel Corporation consulted the President as to the attitude the Government would take if the Corporation exchanged its



Photograph by Jensen & Cunningham, New York

**EX-PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT GIVING HIS TESTIMONY ON THE "TENNESSEE COAL
AND IRON" EPISODE, BEFORE THE CONGRESSIONAL STEEL COMMISSION**

marketable bonds for the non-marketable judging the incident, act on the ex-President's suggestion that it is necessary to take bonds of the Tennessee Company, thereby saving certain large Wall Street institutions from almost certain trouble, and preventing a worse financial catastrophe.

Ex-President Roosevelt a Witness Colonel Roosevelt's testimony before the Stanley Committee was characteristically vigorous. He assumed final and full responsibility for the virtual grant of immunity to the Steel Corporation in the merger, reminding the committee that he was confronted by a tense and dangerous condition, rather than an economic theory. As to just how the motives of the Steel managers were mixed,—whether they were more anxious to allay the panic, or, on the other hand, more anxious to absorb their business rival,—Colonel Roosevelt declared himself without concern. There was a panic, it was in danger of getting worse; here was a chance to keep it within bounds, and he took the chance. Every fair-minded man will, in

Is the Sherman Law Adequate?

In the testimony of Mr. George W. Perkins before the Stanley Committee and the discussion aroused by his answers, there was a striking recognition of the fact that modern business conditions are entirely different from the business conditions of a quarter-century ago,

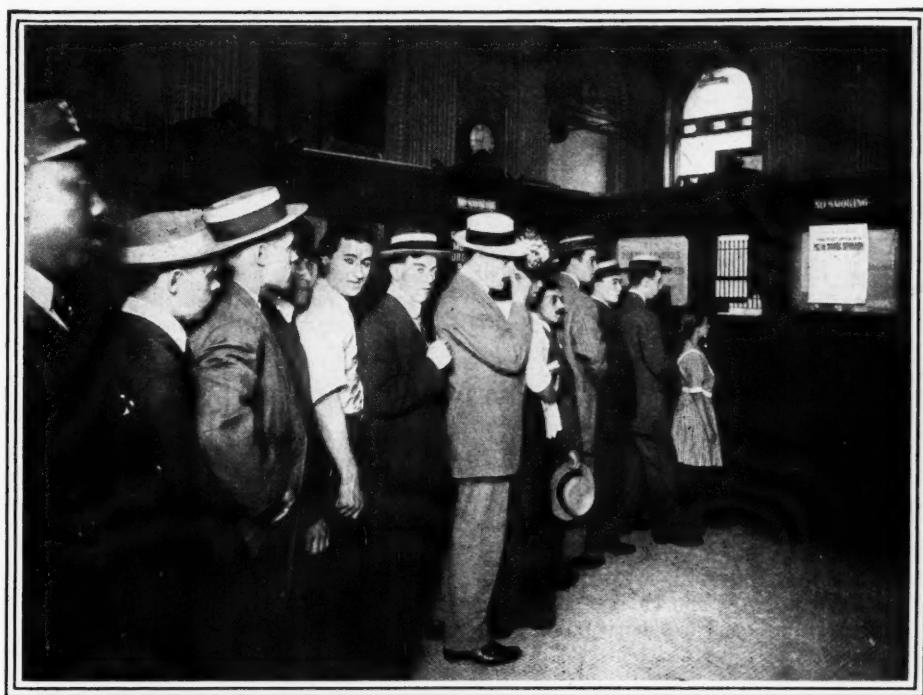
when the Sherman Act was passed. Mr. Perkins made a strong plea for new legislation which would allow the coöperative good of the new conditions of combination to live, and yet restrain the dangers of the new order. Many democratic members of Congress are evidently impressed with the necessity of a fairer and more efficient principle of policing "Big Business" and there has been proposed a commission to consult with such men as Mr. Perkins, Mr. Morgan, Mr. Rockefeller and other great captains of industry to find a better way to control the modern growth of business than the Sherman law affords. In the meantime the Department of Justice has instituted new proceedings for dissolution against the so-called "Soft Coal Trust," alleging an illegal combination between several railroads and mining interests in the bituminous fields. The Lake Shore and Michigan Southern and the Chesapeake and Ohio are the principal railroads involved.

Investigating the Government Congress has not rested with the trust investigations, but has diligently pressed its inquiries into the methods and procedure of some of the executive departments of the Government itself. The investigation of the Bureau of Chemistry in the Agricultural Department has brought to light certain facts which go far to confirm the opinion very generally held that systematic efforts had been made by interested manufacturers to hamper Dr. Wiley's administration of the Pure Food law. It was clearly shown that even the charge of technical violation of law brought against Dr. Wiley as chief of the Bureau of Chemistry was wholly without foundation. As to the administration of the public lands in Alaska, President Taft was able to make a satisfactory defense of his action. The specific charges relating to the elimination of the shore-front lands at Controller Bay from the forest reserve were fully met. There is room for differences of opinion among those who are agreed on the one proposition that Alaska should be opened to development as rapidly as possible. Some believe that the Government should retain possession of a terminal like that at Controller Bay; others maintain that private enterprise should be encouraged to develop such terminals. There is, however, no serious disposition to question President Taft's good faith in eliminating the Controller Bay lands and no reason to doubt that he acted for what he believed to be the public interest.

Paying Customs Tribute

There is probably no sort of law-breaking which is undertaken with such lightness of heart and such confident attempts at self-justification as smuggling, whether in the form of undervaluation of goods by merchants or dishonest declaration on the part of incoming passengers. The task of the Collector of the Port of New York, when that official honestly tries to do his duty by the Government, is no easy one. Ever since his assumption of the duties of this office, in March, 1909, Mr. William Loeb, Jr., has been accused of all sorts of bureaucratic and despotic conduct by both passengers and merchants who object to the Payne-Aldrich tariff, and express their disapproval by false declarations. Mr. Loeb's recent report to the Secretary of the Treasury contains some figures which show how well he has performed his task. The collection of revenue from passengers' baggage, despite the newspaper discussion, yields only a small proportion of that received from the importation of merchandise, and yet the amount so collected is a very important factor. During the year ended March 11, last, the duties collected on passengers' baggage aggregated close to \$2,000,000. This exceeded all previous collections from this source. It is 293 per cent. in excess of the amount collected during the year just preceding Mr. Loeb's taking office, while the increase in the number of passengers for the same period was less than 40 per cent. The report referred to shows also how improvements have been made in the personnel of the service, how the merit system has been introduced and extended, rivalry suppressed, improvements made in the weighing service and in the general business methods of the Custom House. The Collector believes that only jail sentences will stop the rich smugglers. The increase in the amount collected from passenger baggage during the past customs year is obviously chiefly due to the new business methods, the diligence of the officers on the docks, and also to the fact that the traveling public has become convinced of the necessity of declaring all articles brought in from abroad or incurring the risk of having such articles discovered, and of placing the owners in danger of criminal prosecution.

Success of the Postal Savings Banks "Uncle Sam, the people's banker," is doing a thriving business. Hundreds of new branches of his postal savings depositories have recently been opened, and the deposits are rapidly flowing in. Tested first in the



Photograph by Brown Bros., New York

THE OPENING OF NEW YORK CITY'S FIRST POSTAL SAVINGS BANK

smaller communities, the machinery of the system has now been better perfected, and the post-offices of a number of the larger cities have been opened for deposits. New York, Chicago, and Boston began the operation of their depositories on August 1 with great success, hundreds of people standing in line for hours to avail themselves of the privilege of putting their savings in the custody of the Government. The post-offices of ten other large cities will soon be designated as depositories, and practically all of the 1800 second-class post-offices have now been so designated. Then the third and fourth-class offices will be brought into service. Altogether 50,000 of the 60,000 post-offices of all classes in the country will eventually be designated as savings depositories. The banks are open from 9 A.M. to 5 P.M. on every business day, and any individual over ten years of age, without regard to race, creed, or previous condition of servitude, may open an account. Two per cent. interest is paid. A certificate is given for each deposit, and the money paid out on presentation of this certificate. The guaranty of the United States Government stands behind the deposits. Deposits of less than one dollar are certified by special stamps.

A New Charter for New York

The proposed New York City charter, which is to be acted upon at the adjourned session of the State Legislature this month, contains so many radical provisions that the New York Chamber of Commerce has urged the Legislature to refer the bill for future consideration and hearings to a joint committee to be composed of members of the Legislature and an equal number of unofficial citizens of New York City to be chosen by the Mayor. Although the meeting at which this action was taken was described by its chairman as a meeting of inquest and not of protest, it is significant that not a single voice friendly to the proposed charter was raised. All the recent discussion of this remarkable document that has appeared in the press tends to show that many of the new provisions might become, in the hands of a Tammany administration such as the city has known more than once in the past, the mere instruments of plunder and oppression. The Comptroller's present power over contracts is seriously impaired to the great advantage of unscrupulous heads of departments. Many of the former powers of the Aldermen, which, in the palmy days of the Tweed régime, were diligently employed in the interest of graft, are to be re-

stored. The Mayor's veto power in the matter of public-service franchises might be utilized directly against the decisions of the Board of Estimate and the Public Service Commission.

*Care of
the City
Schools*

It seems significant that the educational chapter of the proposed charter has attracted even more attention than the financial sections. This chapter provides that in place of the present unpaid Board of Education, consisting of forty-six members, there shall be substituted a paid board of seven members, the president to receive \$10,000 a year and the other members \$6,000 each. This proposition for a paid board has been generally condemned by educationists throughout the country, many of whom admit that the board should be smaller than it is at the present, but contend that paid service would introduce the danger of politics in the worst sense of the word. What seems, however, to be a more fundamental objection is that the new charter proposes to confer on the board executive powers now exercised by the Superintendent of Schools. Such an arrangement would result in a confused mingling of administrative and legislative functions. It is proposed that the public schools should be brought directly under the control of the Mayor and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, like any city department, and, of course, these officers, purely political by nature, would have the power to discontinue summarily any branch of school work simply by refusing to appropriate money to carry it on. President Lowell, of Harvard, President Butler, of Columbia, and other prominent educators have protested against this chapter of the proposed charter.

*Facts About
City School
Systems*

The discussion called out by the educational features of the New York charter is one of the straws that show a widespread interest in school matters throughout the country. It is said by those who have been giving special attention to the subject that the 20,000,000 children who will register during this month of September in public, parochial, and private schools will be studied, understood, and helped as never before. Professor Paul H. Hanus, who is in charge of the comprehensive inquiry into New York City's school system under the direction of the Board of Estimate, gave four days to the study of the public schools of Montclair, New Jersey, and the results of that study have been published by

the city's school authorities. The National Bureau of Education has just published the results of a month's study of Baltimore schools by the former United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. Elmer E. Brown, and two associates. Special reports will soon be published on investigations of the business management of Cleveland and St. Louis schools, while a number of important documents dealing with all-year schools, intermediate schools, school mortality, a shorter course, and emphasis upon the "three Rs," by Superintendent Elson, of Cleveland, and his colleague, Dr. Frank C. Bachman, are now available. State Commissioner Cheney, of Connecticut, has stimulated important tests of the educational machinery of that State. At its recent San Francisco meeting the National Education Association appropriated \$6,000 for several school inquiries. In the meantime scores of superintendents in small and large towns are making serious and continued studies of their own schools.

*Liquor in
Maine and
Texas*

The two States in which prohibition has been made the most absorbing issue during the summer are Maine and Texas. The vote by which the people of Texas decided, on July 22, against the prohibition amendment to the State constitution was so close that the "wets" have no assurance that a subsequent attempt of the same kind may not prove successful. One reason for the narrow majority in the Lone-Star State may be found in the fact that 162 out of 245 organized counties of the State already have prohibition under the existing local-option laws. It is said that two-thirds of the present population of Texas is now living in "dry" counties. The vote of the counties in which large cities are situated was barely sufficient to turn the scale against prohibition. In Maine, on the other hand, the fight is not to get prohibition into the State constitution, but to keep it there. Prohibition in Maine antedated by many years the constitutional amendment adopted under the leadership of the Republican party in 1884, but prior to that year the liquor traffic had been interdicted by statutory enactment alone. Should the result of the election to be held this month be favorable to the repeal of the amendment, the anti-liquor laws of the State would still remain on the statutory book, and the Democratic party, which is now in power in the State, would have to take the responsibility of repealing them before Maine would become legally "wet."

The Arbitration Treaties

On August 3 the two general arbitration treaties between the United States and Great Britain, and the United States and France were signed; at Washington, by Secretary Knox and Ambassador Bryce for Great Britain, and at Paris by Ambassador Jusserand for France. Secretary Knox signed the French treaty at the same time, and copies were immediately exchanged between Washington and Paris. We have already set forth in these pages the general terms of these treaties, which in substance agree to submit to a neutral court all differences that might ever arise between the contracting governments, even though the dignity, honor and vital interests of either or both might be involved. The following day President Taft sent the agreements to the Senate. On August 5 the terms of the agreements were made public in Washington, London and Paris. The next stage required to enact them into law was their ratification by the United States Senate and the British and French parliaments. On the day the terms of the pacts with Britain and France were made public, President Taft signalized the visit of Admiral Togo to this country by practically inviting Japan to enter into a general arbitration treaty with the United States on similar lines to those already signed. Several days later, Germany, also, through Ambassador von Bernstorff at Washington, made known to Secretary Knox its acceptance of the general principles as laid down in the agreements arranged between Great Britain and France.

The Senate's Objections

Immediately after the publication of the terms of the treaties, a number of Senators permitted it to become known that they would oppose these agreements. They are of the opinion that the High Commission of Inquiry provided for under the conventions would not only infringe upon the Senate's constitutional treaty-making power, but might, in the future, commit this country to submit for settlement to such a court of inquiry some point of dispute which would involve a line of policy regarded by the American people as essential to their national welfare. The general point of view of the Foreign Relations Committee of the Senate was set forth in a report made public on August 15. The committee referred to the treaties as "breeders of bitterness and war," and recommended the elimination of the paragraph conferring specific powers on the joint High Committee of Inquiry. The paragraph in question reads:

It is further agreed, however, that in cases in which the parties disagree as to whether or not a difference is subject to arbitration under Article I of this treaty, that question shall be submitted to the joint high commission of inquiry; and if all or all but one of the members of the commission agree and report that such difference is within the scope of Article I it shall be referred to arbitration in accordance with the provisions of this treaty.

Would the Treaties Breed War?

The committee's report declared that the treaty-making power of the Senate as conferred by the Constitution has "on the whole proved of the highest usefulness in the prevention of hastily and ill-considered agreements with other powers and in the preservation of the interests of all and every part of the American people." So long as that duty rests upon the Senate, "we must continue to perform it with courage and firmness, and without evasion or abdication."

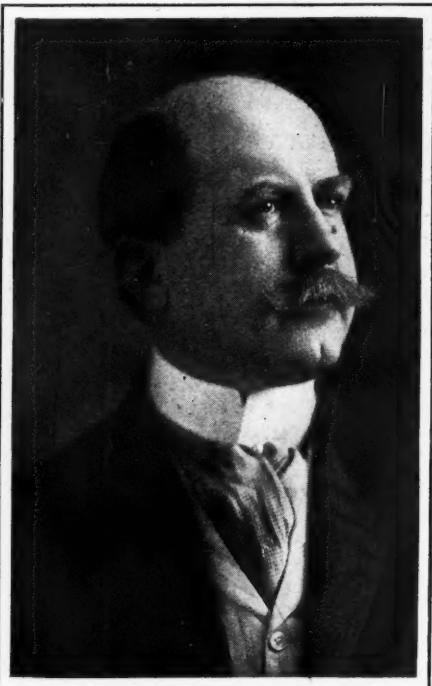
There are certain questions at the present stage of human development which, if thus forced forward for arbitration, would be rejected by the country affected, without regard to whether, in so doing, they broke the general arbitration treaty or not. In the opinion of the committee it should not be possible, under the terms of any treaty, for such a deplorable situation to arise. Nothing ought to be promised that we are not absolutely certain that we can carry out to the letter. If the third clause of Article III remains in the treaty it is quite possible that the unhappy situation just described might arise, and the treaty would then become, not what we fondly hope it will be, a noble instrument of peace, but an ill-omened breeder of bitterness and war. For that reason, as well as on constitutional grounds and in the best interests of peace and arbitration itself, the committee recommends that this clause be stricken from the treaty.

The subjects referred to in the above sentences were afterwards more specifically stated by individual senators to be arbitration with China and Japan, or other Asiatic nations in matters of labor and immigration, and the general national policy of the Monroe Doctrine. Answering these objections, Secretary Knox, in an interview given out on August 6, contended that there would be no abdication of power by the Senate, since

if it is agreed that the difference is one for arbitration, or, failing to agree, it is decided to be arbitrable by the commission, then the arbitration is to be conducted under a special agreement to be submitted by the President to the Senate for its advice and approval, in the same manner as is provided in the existing arbitration treaties of 1908.

President Taft's Defense

President Taft and Secretary Knox, in several public speeches, defended the arbitration principle and the treaties already concluded with Britain and France. In a speech at Ocean



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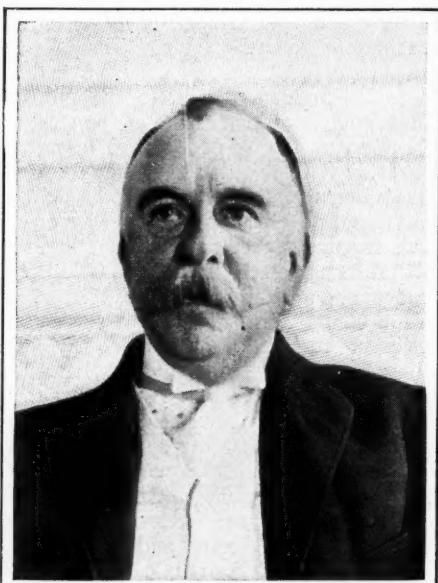
HON. CHARLES PAGE BRYAN, OUR NEW AMBASSADOR TO JAPAN

Grove, New Jersey, on August 15, the President spoke in glowing terms of the progress made in the arbitration idea during recent years. He extolled the merits of the treaties in question, and expressed regret that the Senate should regard its prerogatives as "any more sacred than those of the Executive or any other branch of the Government." Neither the President nor Secretary Knox believes that under these treaties the Monroe Doctrine or any other national policy could be arbitrated out of existence. Their position is that national policies cannot be held to be justiciable. A number of leading Senators, however, fear that while the doctrine itself would never openly come to the point of arbitration, particular cases involving the policy might do so, and, in effect, the policy might thus be condemned and abrogated by the arbitral award. It was not expected last month that any definite action would be taken on the treaties until the regular session of Congress in December. The great good accomplished by the conclusion of such agreements, even if unratified in their original form, is the moral effect. In the words of the great Paris daily, the *Temps*, "there is every reason to believe that Great Britain, France,

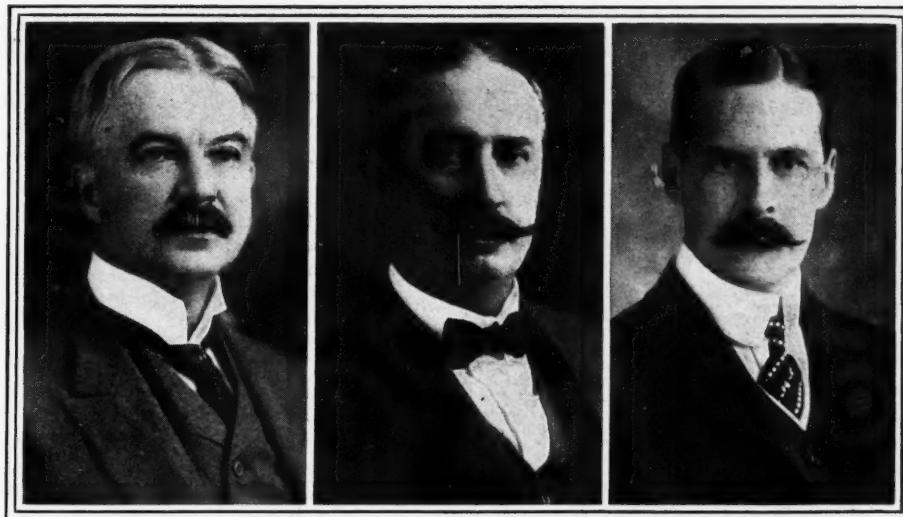
and the United States will never need to have recourse to the procedure which the treaties outline. Yet it is not surprising, indeed it is salutary, that these great peoples believed it their duty to outline such procedure."

*New
Diplomatic
Transfers*

The largest shift in important diplomatic positions ever made by the State Department, carrying out the idea of rewarding meritorious work of the diplomats with better places within the service, was made last month. On August 8 the State Department announced that John G. A. Leishman, of Pennsylvania, Ambassador at Rome, had been transferred to Berlin to succeed Dr. David Jayne Hill, resigned. Other transfers were: Thomas J. O'Brien, of Missouri, Ambassador at Japan, to be Ambassador at Rome, succeeding Mr. Leishman; Charles Page Bryan, of Illinois, Minister to Belgium, to be Ambassador to Japan, succeeding Mr. O'Brien; Lars Anderson, of Ohio, to be Minister to Belgium; John Ridgley Carter, of Maryland, Minister to the Balkan States, to be Minister to the Argentine Republic; John B. Jackson, of New Jersey, Minister to Cuba, to be Minister to the Balkan States; Arthur M. Beaupre, of Illinois, Minister to the Netherlands, to be Minister to Cuba; and Lloyd Bryce, of New York, to be Minister to the Netherlands. All these diplomats, with the exception of Mr. Anderson and Mr. Bryce, have been in the



HON. JOHN G. A. LEISHMAN, WHO SUCCEEDS DR. HILL AS AMERICAN AMBASSADOR AT BERLIN



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ARTHUR M. BEAUPRE, MINISTER
TO CUBALARS ANDERSON, WHO GOES
TO BELGIUMJOHN RIDGELEY CARTER, MINISTER
TO THE BALKAN STATES

THREE RECENT DIPLOMATIC TRANSFERS AND APPOINTMENTS

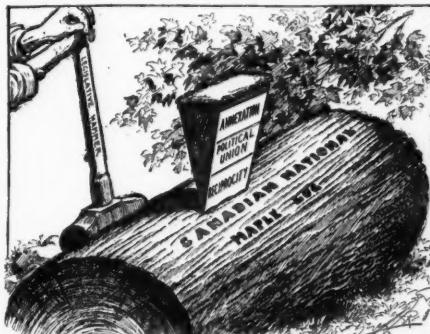
service for years, and are admirably well fitted by equipment and experience to carry out the present policy of the government to make the American diplomatic corps a permanent service.

Canadian Parliament Dissolved On July 26 President Taft affixed his signature to the bill enacting into law, as far as this country is concerned, the reciprocity agreement with Canada. The main points in the progress of the measure have been as follows: The preliminary steps were taken in the negotiations of 1909 over the maximum and minimum clause of the Payne tariff law. The formal negotiations, however, were begun at Albany, when, in March, 1910, President Taft met and conferred with W. S. Fielding, Canadian Minister of Finance, and William Patterson, the Dominion Minister of Customs. The negotiation of details was begun when Henry M. Hoyt and Charles M. Pepper went to Ottawa in November, 1910, and resumed when Mr. Fielding and Mr. Patterson visited Washington in January last. The agreement was submitted to Congress in a special message by the President on January 26, approved by the Republican House of the last Congress, February 14, and by the Democratic House of the present Congress, April 27, and passed by the Republican Senate on July 22. On the day before President Taft signed the bill, Sir Wilfrid Laurier and his government had decided

to place their political future in the hands of the electorate of the Dominion.

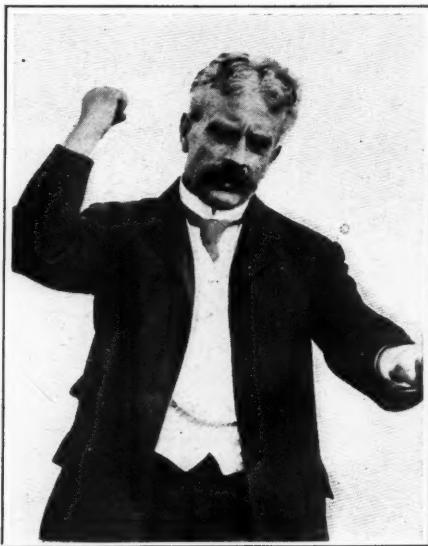
*A New
Election
This Month*

Although the passage of the reciprocity bill by the Senate and President Taft's signing of that document put the Laurier Ministry in a somewhat stronger position before the country, the leaders of the Opposition at Ottawa professed to see no change in the situation. They asserted that they would continue to filibuster against the measure, which they denounced as the "entering wedge of a policy looking toward the dissolution of Canada's ties with the mother country." Under Parliamentary rules in



WOULD RECIPROCITY BE THE THIN WEDGE OF ANNEXATION?

From the *Daily Star* (Montreal)



Copyright by the American Press Association, New York
HON. ROBERT L. BORDEN, LEADER OF THE CANADIAN
OPPOSITION
(As he appeared last month on his whirlwind tour through
the west against reciprocity)

Canada a majority cannot force closure on a question of this nature. Therefore, on July 29, Parliament was dissolved. The date set for nominations was September 14, and for the elections September 21. The Governor-General's proclamation appoints October 11 for the assembling of the new Parliament. It is expected, however, that the meeting will be postponed for a week in order that the new session may be opened formally by the new Governor-General, the Duke of Connaught, who will arrive in Quebec about October 15.

Laurier's Prospects The two Canadian political chieftains, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, the Premier, and Mr. R. L. Borden, the Opposition leader, began their election campaigns on August 14, in the Province of Ottawa, within a few miles of each other. Sir Wilfrid is making his canvass wholly on the issue of reciprocity. He insists that closer trade relations with the United States have been the aim of both parties in Canada for forty years. He denounces the annexation bogey as ridiculous and unworthy of consideration. He had a substantial majority of forty-five votes in the last Parliament, and it is generally believed that he will be returned with a safe margin in the next. Sir Wilfrid has the double advantage of having behind him old Canada and new Canada. Himself a native of Quebec, a Frenchman, and a Roman

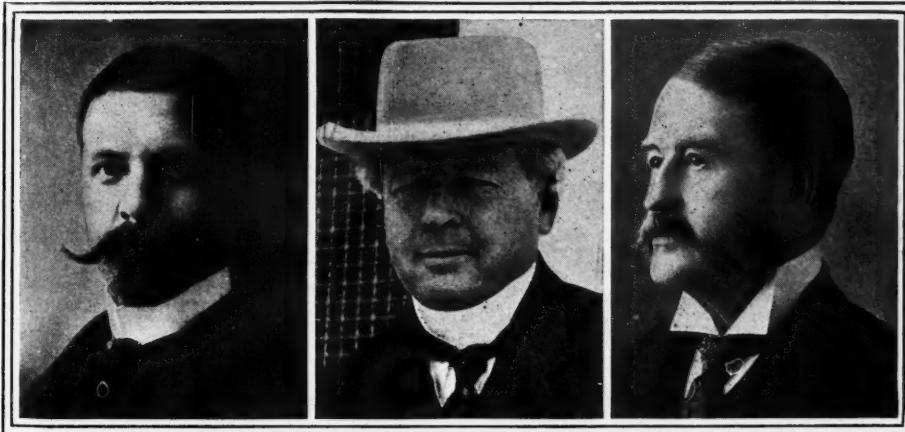
Catholic, the Premier has successfully appealed to his own race and co-religionists, who have kept him in the premiership for many years. On the other hand, he now dominates new Canada also, the great new agricultural provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan, and is strong in Manitoba. These western sections are very heartily in favor of reciprocity. Ontario, the stronghold of the protectionist manufacturers, may reject the Laurier program. The small eastern provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, as well as the far western province of British Columbia, are doubtful. Mr. McBride, Premier of British Columbia, has recently joined Mr. Whitney, Premier of Ontario, in public denunciation of the reciprocity idea.

*The
Opposition
Campaign*

Sir Wilfrid has a revolt within his own ranks to face. Henri Bourassa, the French Liberal leader in Quebec, one of the most brilliant of Canadian politicians, while supporting reciprocity, is campaigning against Mr. Laurier on the general record of the Liberal party. He and his constituents, who are strong in the Quebec Province, oppose the naval policy of the government. Opposition leader Borden issued a long manifesto to his followers on August 15. He attacked reciprocity as tending "to disunite the provinces, shatter the ideal of em-



MR. BORDEN CAMPAIGNING LAST MONTH IN
SASKATCHEWAN



HON. HENRI BOURASSA
(French Nationalist leader)

HON. RICHARD McBRIDE
(Premier of British Columbia)

SIR JAMES WHITNEY
(Premier of Ontario)

EMINENT CANADIAN OPPONENTS OF THE LAURIER POLICIES

pire, and reverse the policy of Canadian nationhood." If Canada places itself under the commercial control of the United States, Mr. Borden insists, "its political independence, if retained, will be a shadow and not a substantial reality." Mr. Borden made a whirlwind campaign of the West last month. Several recent important changes in the Canadian cabinet included the appointment of Hon. L. P. Brodeur, until now Minister of Marine and the Fisheries, to be Judge of the Supreme Court; the transfer of Postmaster General Lemieux to succeed Mr.

Brodeur; and the appointment as Postmaster General of H. S. Beland, a Liberal representative from Quebec.

Mexico, Panama and Chile
On the first day of next month it is expected that the voters of the Republic of Mexico will choose a President to succeed provisional President de la Barra. The campaign is proceeding in an orderly manner, and the only candidates so far announced who apparently stand any chance of election are Francisco Madero and General Bernardo Reyes. In order to secure



HON. LOUIS P. BRODEUR
(Judge of the Supreme Court)

HON. RODOLPH LEMIEUX
(Minister of Marine)

HON. W. S. FIELDING
(Minister of Finance)

ENTHUSIASTIC ADVOCATES OF RECIPROCITY WITH THE UNITED STATES



PREMIER ASQUITH

(As he appeared last month to a French artist visiting London)

an orderly, fair election Señor Madero believes that he must remove from office, before October 1, every appointee of General Diaz—judges, from chief justices down to justices of the peace, senators, representatives, governors, sheriffs, army officers, and postal employees, all of whom have been dependent upon the good will of Diaz. These are to be removed from office in order to guarantee peace. It is a great task, and will tax the ability of Señor Madero to the utmost. A curious situation exists in Panama. Nobody wants to be President, at least not just now. Owing to the fact that all of the three Vice-Presidents have ambitions to be elected to the chief office in the land, and because of the fact that under the Panaman law a man cannot be elected President if he has had a government office during the six months preceding the election, all the candidates want a leave of absence of six months. Just what the ultimate result will be is not quite certain. At the other end of South America the Chileans are rejoicing over the fact that although the long delayed award, by King George of England, as arbitrator, in the Alsopp case has been made

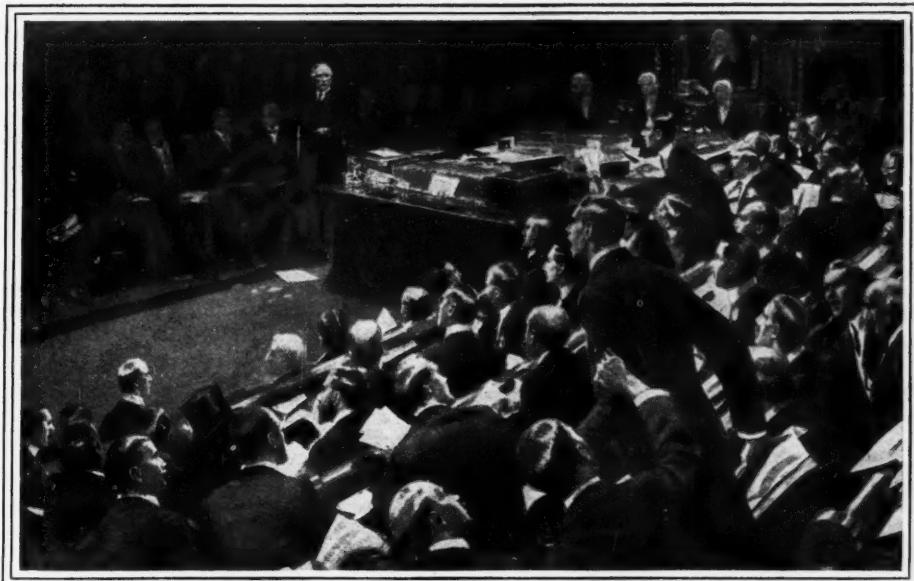
in favor of the United States, the amount (\$900,000) is regarded as comparatively small considering the magnitude of the interests involved and the time the claim has been pending.

*Another
Revolution
in Haiti*

A revolution in Haiti and the induction into office of President of the successful revolutionary leader is an event of such frequent occurrence as not to seem of very momentous interest to the rest of the world. Last month the aged Antoine Simon, who had been President since December, 1908, fled from Port-au-Prince, the capital, and the successful revolutionists, led by General Cincinnatus Leconte, made a triumphal entry into the city. On August 14 General Leconte was elected President by the legislature. He is a lawyer by profession, a revolutionary soldier by preference and an intriguer by occupation. The significance to the rest of the world of affairs in Haiti lies chiefly in the fact that in this half of the distracted West Indian island, a French-speaking negro republic is trying to carry out the governmental experiment in which Santo Domingo, the Spanish-speaking republic on the same island, of mixed though largely negro blood, has already so signally failed. The United States Government, it will be remembered, now exercises financial control over the revenues of the Dominican Government. Foreign bondholders of Haiti are already clamoring for American supervision of the affairs of Haiti. The question of the fitness of a people of African blood to administer an independent government, which at one time seemed to have been successfully demonstrated by the Liberian Republic, cannot fail to be of interest and significance to the American people. Haiti's peculiar national problems, as they relate to the larger problems of all the Caribbean peoples, were set forth by General Légitime, a former President of the republic at the Universal Races Congress, held in London late in July. An account of the proceedings of this Congress appears on another page this month.

*Britain's
Grave
Problems*

British politics, domestic and foreign, have occupied the premier place in the world's attention during recent weeks. England's firm stand in the Morocco dispute between Germany and France; the Liberal Government's victory in curtailing the power of the House of Lords; and the industrial war, which by the middle of last month threatened to bring about real anarchy in the British Isles, made British affairs of intense world interest during the



EXCITED UNIONISTS "HOWLING DOWN" THE BRITISH PREMIER IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON JULY 24

weeks of July and early August. Mr. Asquith's pronouncement of Britain's position with regard to Germany's ambitions in Morocco undoubtedly saved France from being forced to humiliating concessions. The surrender of the Lords in the matter of the government's veto bill has effected a constitutional revolution in England. As for the great strikes on the steamships and railroads throughout England, Scotland and Wales, the reports would seem to indicate that Tom Mann, one of the best known of British labor leaders, did not overstate its seriousness when he remarked last month that "for England the present industrial situation signifies a movement never seen since the days of the Norman invasion."

The Lords Surrender

A constitutional revolution was actually achieved in England last month, and an industrial revolution threatened. On August 10, the House of Lords, by a vote of 131 to 114, accepted the government bill providing for the virtual extinction of the peers in the matter of any control of or interference with legislation pertaining to finance. The House of Lords has a membership of 618. Of these only 245 voted on the bill, the greater number abstaining. These 131 peers, however, by the majority of 17, entirely changed the character of the Upper House of Parliament which, under varying names, for a thousand years has been an essential part of the British national legis-

lature. As we noted last month, the Lords passed, on July 20, the bill at its third reading, with certain amendments which would have defeated its main purpose. The intentions of the government were set forth in a letter addressed by the Premier to Mr. Balfour.

When the Parliament bill in the form which it has now assumed returns to the House of Commons we shall be compelled to ask that House to disagree with the Lords' amendments. In the circumstances, should the necessity arise, the government will advise the King to exercise his prerogative to secure the passing into law of the bill in substantially the same form in which it left the House of Commons, and His Majesty has been pleased to signify that he will consider it his duty to accept and act on that advice.

*Disorder
in the
Commons*

On July 24 the Premier rose to make his reply to the amendments of the Lords. The House was crowded as it has not been in many years. Every member was present, and the galleries were crowded with visitors. When Mr. Asquith began to speak, encouraged by vociferous applause from the Radical, Irish and Labor benches, he was met with a storm of denunciation, hisses, and cries of "Traitor" from the Opposition. The interruption lasted so long that the speaker, for the first time in the history of the House of Commons, was compelled to declare the sitting adjourned, because, in his opinion, "the members were comporting themselves in an unseemly manner." The Premier was unable to be heard,



THE GREAT RESISTER: LORD HALSBURY

(This veteran of eighty-six rallied the peers to resist the Parliament Bill to the bitter end)

although he made several efforts. A summary of his undelivered speech appeared in the evening newspapers. In it Mr. Asquith contended that the principles of the bill had been before the people at two elections and had been known to the country for the past four years. No form of referendum, he asserted, that could be devised would indicate more clearly the opinion of the electorate. The government had accepted important amendments in the House of Commons, but had refused to admit the changes proposed by the Lords which would virtually give absolute power to a committee to throw out any bill unacceptable to the peers. The Premier concluded by quoting constitutional writers and the history of the passage of the Reform Bill in 1832, and mentioned the King's promise to create enough peers to insure the passage of the bill. In the reply for the Opposition Mr. Balfour frankly expressed regret at the unseemly action of some of the Unionist members in "howling down" Mr. Asquith. He contended, however, that the Premier had exceeded his prerogatives in proposing to deal with an "ordinary deadlock" between the two houses of Parliament by "taking advantage of a young and inexperienced monarch to drag the crown in the dust and abuse the

confidence of the sovereign," in order to secure the creation of new peers.

*The Losing
Battle of the
Peers*

During the few days following these stormy sessions of Parliament, Mr. Asquith negotiated with the Unionist leaders for guarantees that the Lords would accept the bill when it was again returned to them shorn of its amendments. Otherwise, he informed them that the list of names for the peerage would be submitted to the King at once. Ever since the government bill has been before the Upper House the peers have divided into those who favored a compromise and the irreconcilables, who had become known as the "No-Surrenderites," and the "Die-in-the-Last-Ditchers." Lord Lansdowne was the leader of those who favored the government's measure—"since the veto bill plus the puppet peers is worse than the veto bill without them." The "No-Surrenderites" were led by the veteran Lord Halsbury, now in his eighty-seventh year, who was Lord Chancellor from 1895 to 1905. At the memorable session of August 10, Lord Morley, who piloted the government case through the Upper House, read the formal consent of the King to the creation of as many peers as might be found necessary to meet the demands of the government. Lord Rosebery and Lord Lansdowne then mildly urged the peers to accept the government's measure, or to abstain from voting, while Lord Milner and the Duke of Norfolk and other of the higher nobility took their places with the "Die-in-the-Last-Ditchers."

The Surrender

The fateful proposition upon which the Lords surrendered—"drank the hemlock," in the epigrammatic political phrase of the day—was in the form of a resolution that the Peers would not insist upon the Marquis of Lansdowne's amendments, excluding the Home Rule bill, the Protestant succession, and "other grave matters" from the terms of the bill. This removed all the amendments of the Lords and left the measure in its original form as it came from the Commons. The official report recorded in the documents of Parliament for August 10, 1911, contains the bare announcement couched in the most formal, official terms: "A message has been received from the House of Lords stating that they will not insist upon their amendments to the Parliament bill to which the House of Commons had disagreed, and that they have agreed to the inconsequential amendment to the bill proposed by the House of Commons." The bill

became a law by royal assent on August 18. Thus goes on record what is doubtless the greatest victory achieved by a British Liberal Prime Minister in a century. Unionists passed the bill in the upper chamber, but history will record it as a triumph for Mr. Asquith, a triumph all the greater since it has been achieved by a coalition majority in the Commons over which the government has not had absolute control. Mr. Balfour's threat that a future Conservative government will restore the Upper House to its full veto power is, of course, an idle one. No Englishman or foreigner believes that Great Britain will go backward. His resolution to censure the government for its advice to the King, moreover, was overwhelmingly beaten.

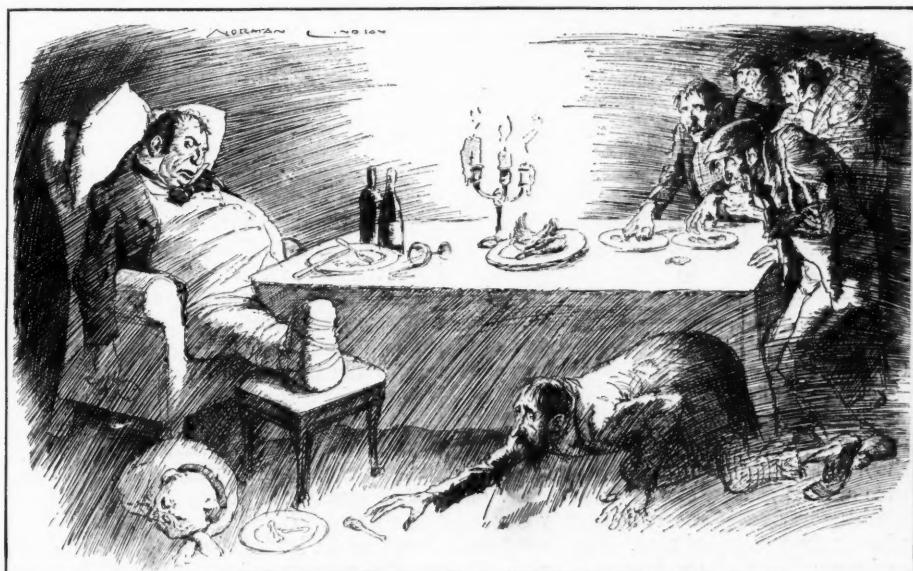
Usefulness of the Lords Not Impaired The result has not been seriously impaired to impair the usefulness of the House of Lords. That cham-

ber still maintains its integrity, although, by the will of the people it has been deprived of some of its powers. The peers can still retard objectionable and emotional legislation for two years. They can still, if they will, exert a wholesome check on the House of Commons. The practical effect of the change made in the British constitution by the new bill is to give the final decision in all matters of legisla-

tion to the Commons. The absolute control exercised by members of the lower house in all financial matters has never been disputed. The only points of controversy between the Lords and the Commons have arisen when other legislation "not germane to finance is tacked on to money bills." This was the case, the peers claimed, when the Lords threw out the Lloyd-George budget two years ago. Under the terms of the bill just accepted by the Peers, the speaker of the House of Commons will hereafter decide, in case of dispute, whether or not a bill, or any portion of a bill is, or is not concerned with finance. Moreover, other bills of any sort whatsoever passed by the Commons in the future become law, even if the Lords reject them, provided certain formalities have been complied with, a certain period of time has elapsed, and after that interval the Commons remain of the same mind.

Home Rule Next

Irish leaders have publicly announced that, in return for their unwavering support of the government in the veto matter, they now expect that a bill giving Home Rule for Ireland will be introduced and passed at once. The Lords will most certainly object to such a measure, and will, beyond a doubt, exercise their pre-



IS THIS WHY BRITISH LABOR HAS BEEN STRIKING?

(It is computed that £20,000,000 was spent on the recent coronation. "After sixty years of Free Trade, it is estimated that one-third of the British people live on the verge of starvation."—*News Item*)
This cartoon originally appeared in the *Sydney Bulletin*, and was reproduced in the London *Daily Chronicle* as being particularly appropriate during the great labor strike



HON. RAMSAY MACDONALD, CHAIRMAN OF THE
PARLIAMENTARY LABOR COMMITTEE
(Who was prominent last month in the government's
efforts to settle the big strike)

rogative of holding it up for two years. Then should the present House continue its existence and no general elections upset Mr. Asquith's government, Home Rule may become a law in the autumn of 1913. Parliament was to have adjourned on August 18 until the winter session. The government's legislative program, however, had become so congested, owing to the long delay in settling the veto question with the Lords, that an autumn session, beginning in October, has been found

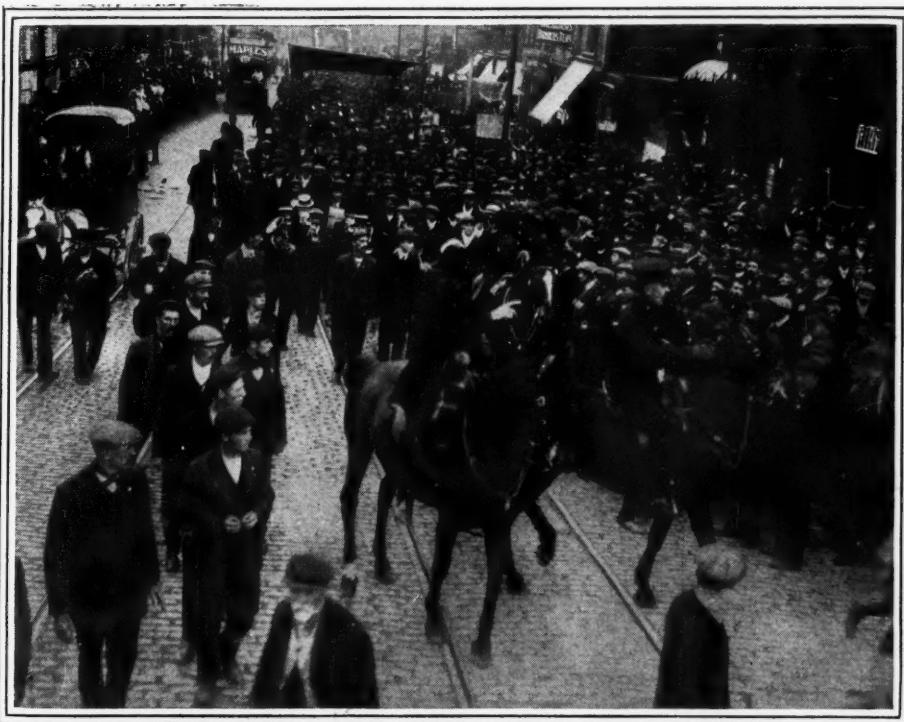
necessary. In the last days of the summer session a resolution, introduced by Chancellor Lloyd-George, to pay members of the House of Commons \$2,000 annually for their services was passed by a large majority. The adjournment of the session was delayed by the great dock and railroad strikes which assumed grave national proportions at the time the government was winning its triumph in the veto matter.

*Industrial
War in
England*

Not for more than a century has England been in the throes of such a violent industrial and social crisis as last month when the labor situation reached an acute phase in the strike violence in London, Liverpool, Manchester, Glasgow, and other cities, and a large proportion of the regular army was ordered out by the government to maintain order and protect the railroads in operating their trains. Beginning in the early summer with the strike of dock handlers and laborers on steamships, and later followed by the railroad and other transportation workers, the labor situation in England had daily grown more serious until, last month, frequent collisions had occurred between the mob and the police and military in the streets of London and Liverpool. More than one large city was in peril of a food famine. A general strike had been declared involving nearly 200,000 men, and it seemed as though actual anarchy had been precipitated throughout the Kingdom.

*Causes of
the
Discontent*

British labor, which is more highly unionized than that of any other country in the world, has been dissatisfied and loudly expressing its discontent ever since the enactment into law of Chancellor Lloyd-George's famous conciliation act. In 1907, the Chancellor, himself the author of the now pending old age pensions and unemployment relief schemes, piloted through Parliament an act providing for certain agreements between employers and employees which should prevent strikes for the following seven years. Mr. Lloyd-George, then President of the Board of Trade, and Richard Bell, then Secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, drew up this scheme. It prescribed that all disputes should be settled by conciliation boards composed of representatives of the companies and the men, with two arbitrators chosen from the House of Lords. In case of dispute, no strike was to be declared before the year 1914. No specific grievance is alleged as a reason for the present serious strike situation, and the men



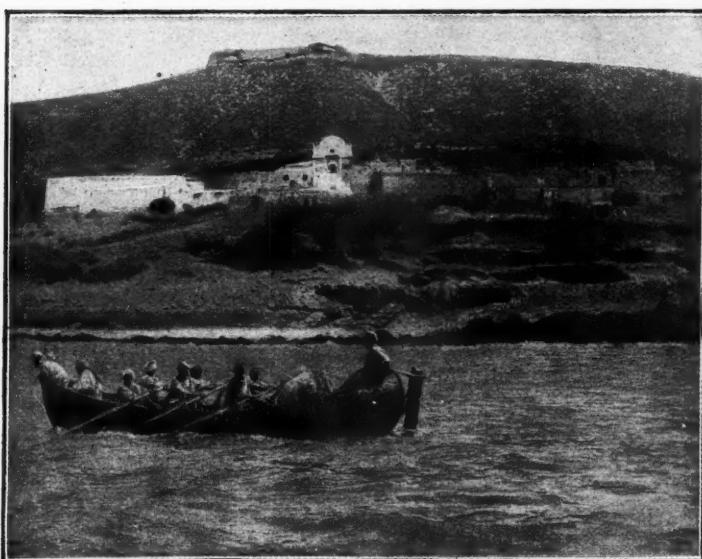
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POLICEMEN DIRECTING 17,000 LONDON DOCK STRIKERS ON THEIR MARCH FROM CONNAUGHT GATE TO EAST LONDON DOCKS

admit that the disputes have, in most cases, been settled. Yet, in the words of one of their leaders "the British laboring man is hopelessly dissatisfied with the working of the scheme and bitterly laments the slowness of the results it yields." The men claim that it gives the companies the power to postpone acting upon demands. Despite their agreement, the men have accordingly broken with the companies, and by the middle of last month, it was estimated that 400,000 workers, men and women, had gone out. Most of them were employed in the transportation industries, and very soon railroads, street car lines and river service were crippled, and in seventeen cities and larger towns all the teamsters, truckmen and freight handlers had struck.

*The
Government
Intervenes* The British Isles produce, perhaps, less of the necessities of every day life for their own people than any other country in the world. The available provision supplies of London and other great British cities are always small and must be constantly renewed. A few days "hold up" of the transportation alone.

lines spells disaster for the inhabitants of these urban centers. At one time last month Liverpool was actually within forty-eight hours of the pinch of hunger, and the price of provisions had arisen in the other towns of England and Scotland to unheard of points. As soon as the great railway systems of England and Scotland were threatened with a practical tie up, and the disorder in Manchester and Liverpool had reached a point such as has not been witnessed in a European city since the days of the Commune in Paris, the government stepped in. Several conferences were held between the managers of the railway, Mr. Sydney Buxton, the President of the Board of Trade, the executive committee of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, and Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, the chairman of the Parliamentary Labor committee. The Cabinet also held special sessions to consider the situation. Meanwhile the disorder had increased and Mr. Winston Churchill, Home Secretary, had called out the regular troops to assist the police. At one time more than 50,000 of the military were on strike duty in London



A VIEW OF AGADIR FROM THE SEA WITH ITS CITADEL ON THE HILL

A Protracted Struggle

The companies in general refused "negotiations" over Morocco. The demands of the men and insisted upon a strict adherence to the terms of the conciliation agreement of 1907. The strike leaders, for their part, declared that they would fight to the bitter end. Then, on August 19, chiefly through the efforts of Chancellor Lloyd-George, a settlement was effected. A joint committee of five, consisting of two representatives of the companies and two of the men, with a neutral chairman, was appointed by the government to investigate thoroughly all the workings of the Conciliation Act of 1907. This the men consider the root of all their grievances. The strikers agreed to return to their work at once, and the companies pledged themselves to abide by any decision made by the committee with regard to an increase of wages or the regulation of hours of work. It was agreed to submit all disputed questions to the Board of Trade.

The Bargain Over Morocco

In these pages last month we remarked that by the middle of July the Moroccan dispute between France and Germany had

descended to the bargain counter stage. It is now evident that the bargain has been made, but the terms thereof are not known to the general public. Furthermore, if we may judge from the guarded announcements issued by the German, French, and British foreign offices, it will be some time before the details are made known to the world. During the first half of July the news despatches were full of guesses as to the character of the Franco-German diplomatic "conversations." Baron Alfred von Kiderlen-Waechter, the German Foreign Min-

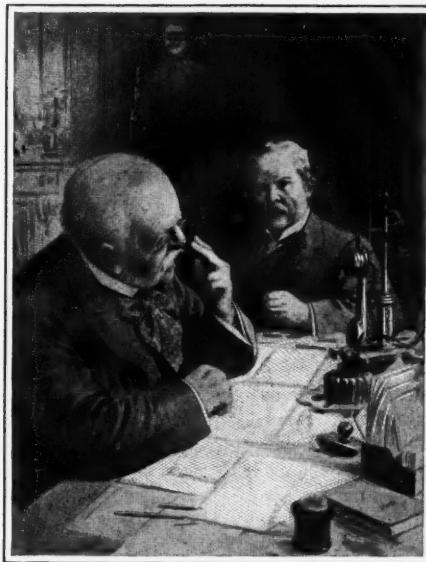


SULTAN OF MOROCCO: "Hallo! Another doctor! Hadn't you better hold a consultation?"

GERMAN SURGEON: "Well, to tell the truth, I hadn't thought of consulting these other gentlemen. I rather meant to operate on my own account. Still, if there's a general feeling in favor of a conversazione——"

From *Punch* (London)

ister, and M. Jules Cambon, French Ambassador at Berlin, conducted the negotiations. After two weeks of these exchanges the German press began to refer to them as "conversations concerning African questions," intimating that Germany sought compensation outside of Morocco for withdrawing from Agadir. The French press, on the other hand, boldly asserted that the Germans were demanding, as the price of giving France a free hand in Morocco, the cession to her of almost the whole of French Congo and the transfer of the French contingent rights over the Belgian Congo, a price which the Paris Government indirectly let it be known would never be paid. A number of Belgian journals also have published vigorous protests against the cession to any third power of the right of preémpion over the Congo, which is now vested in France. On another page, this month (305), we present to our readers a vivid account, by one who knows African questions at first hand from years of travel, of the solid achievements of French



M. JULES CAMBON, AMBASSADOR OF FRANCE, AND HERR VON KIDERLEN-WÄCHTER, THE GERMAN FOREIGN SECRETARY, DISCUSSING IN BERLIN THE EXTRAORDINARY SITUATION BROUGHT ABOUT BY THE AGADIR INCIDENT

(From a sketch by L. Sabattier in the *Illustrated London News*)

administration and the German colonization on the dark continent. The text and illustrations of this article indicate graphically the large stake for which Germans and Frenchmen are now playing. The only one not consulted in the matter is the Sultan of Morocco.



BARON ALFRED VON KIDERLEN-WÄCHTER, THE PUGNACIOUS GERMAN FOREIGN MINISTER

Britain's Firm Stand The problem assumed the proportions of an international question of the first magnitude on July 22, when David Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and "one of the most important members of the British Cabinet, addressing the bankers of London, declared that while the British Government did not propose to express any opinion regarding the sovereign rights of France and Germany to settle colonial questions that concerned them alone, nevertheless, he was quite sure he spoke for all his official colleagues when he said,

if a situation were to be forced upon us in which peace could only be preserved by the surrender of the great and beneficent position Britain has won by centuries of heroism and achievement, by allowing Britain to be treated where her interests were vitally affected as if she were of no account in the cabinet of nations, then I say emphatically peace at that price would be a humiliation intolerable for a great country like ours to endure.



SULTAN MULAY HAFID (in between the strenuous German and French foreign offices): "Something is going to happen to me. I wish I knew what."
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

This utterance of the Chancellor was followed by three other significant speeches in the House of Commons on July 26. In a paper, written and read,—an unusual method in the House of Commons, indicating that great weight and official sanction was to be attached to the document,—Premier Asquith declared that it was the hope of King George's government that a settlement, satisfactory and honorable to both France and Germany, might be reached between them, and one in no way prejudicial to Britain's interests.

But, failing such a settlement, we must become an active party in the discussion of the situation. That would be our right as a signatory to the Treaty of Algeciras, as it might be our obligation under the terms of our agreement of 1904 with France. It might be our duty in defence of British interests directly affected by further developments.

Mr. Balfour, speaking for the Opposition, pledged his support to the government in the course indicated by Mr. Asquith. He continued in these words:

If there are any outside these walls who had counted upon differences and absorption in home disputes in the hope that they would make easy a policy which in other circumstances this country might reject; and if there are any who supposed that we would be wiped off the map of Europe because we have our difficulties at home, it may be worth while saying that they utterly mistake the temper of the British people and the patriotism of the Opposition.

Has Germany Backed Down? These utterances clarified the situation. They were interpreted in France as an indication that Britain was in earnest and meant to see that the republic was not humiliated. The German Kaiser hastily returned from a Norwegian tour; it was reported that a British fleet had been ordered concentrated on the North Sea, and that France and Germany had each called out 400,000 of their reserves. The semi-official German press began to assert defiantly that the speeches of Mr. Asquith and Mr. Lloyd-George were virtual threats and that Germany would not withdraw under pressure. For a few days war was in the air. On July 29, however, a statement appeared in the semi-official *Hamburger Nachrichten*, in which it was asserted that Russia, the friend of all the nations concerned in the Moroccan dispute, had succeeded in bringing all the foreign offices concerned to such an understanding that "the rough edges of England's brutal selfishness" had been rubbed off, and a peaceful solution of the difficulty was in sight. This has been taken by the world to indicate that, in the language of the street, the Kaiser had "climbed down." It is now believed that France is aiming to bring about another European conference at which she will submit the entire Moroccan question for a permanent, definitive settlement.

This statement, furthermore, was endorsed by Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, leader of the Labor party in Parliament. Although utterly opposed to war, Mr. Macdonald said he hoped "no European nation would assume for a single moment that party divisions have weakened the national spirit."

Nevertheless, the Labor parties of Germany, France and England can be counted on to coöperate to the very last moment in seeking peace and in preventing two professedly Christian nations from resorting to the arbitrament of the sword over a difficulty that might easily be settled at The Hague.

Thus all the groups of the government coalition as well as the opposition supported the Premier.

Aviation
Notes

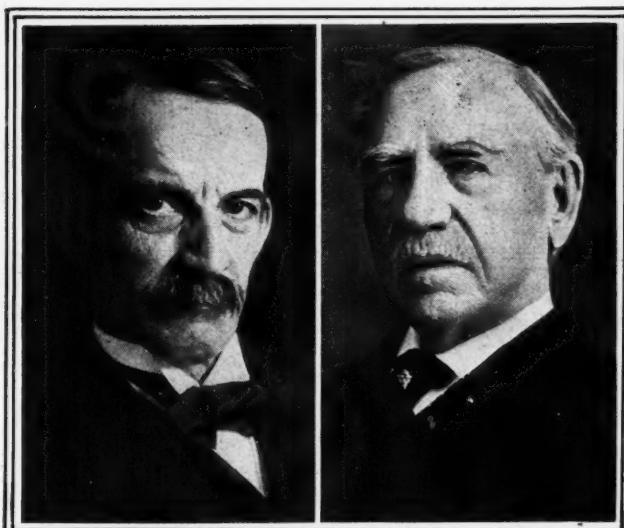
August was an active month for the aviators.

Some notable triumphs and regrettable disasters were registered. The great Chicago meet, lasting from the 12th to the 20th, furnished a series of thrilling performances, at times as many as a dozen machines being in the air. About two score of the world's famous flyers competed, and hundreds of thousands of people witnessed the flights each day. A half-dozen odd flyers fell into Lake Michigan without sustaining serious injuries. Two real disasters, however, occurred on the fourth day of the meet, August 15, when both William C. Badger and St. Croix John-

stone were killed. Badger's aeroplane came into contact with the side of a gully in the field and fell into the pit, crushing him beneath the wreckage. Johnstone's motor exploded and he and his machine fell into the water. During the Chicago meet Harry N. Atwood alighted on the field in the course of his cross-country flight from St. Louis to New York. Atwood had started from St. Louis on August 14, and, with various stops on the way, was due to arrive at New York on Wednesday, August 23. The successful completion of this trip of 1269 miles, as shown by the map on the following page, would constitute a world's record for an aerial journey, giving to America laurels in long-distance flights. Many of the foreign flyers, as well as Americans, who took part in the Chicago meet, will participate in the Harvard aviation meet, to take place at the Squantum aviation field during the period from August 26 to September 4.

Two Eminent Public Servants

Among the public men recently removed from the field of service, by death, Edward M. Shepard, the New York lawyer and eminent Democrat, had at various times figured importantly in political affairs, although he never held an elective office. His vigorous and successful efforts as the prosecutor of ballot frauds in 1893 attracted the attention of State and nation, and his service in that capacity was the more conspicuous because it resulted in the punishment of leaders in his own political party.

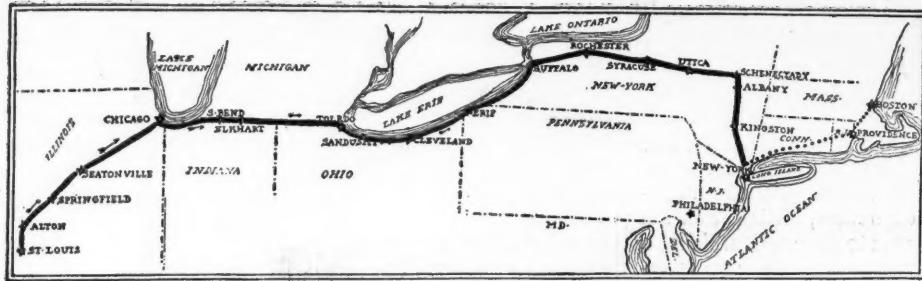


Photograph by Brown Bros., New York
MR. EDWARD M. SHEPARD

Copyright by Harris & Ewing, Washington
SENATOR WILLIAM P. FRYE

Mr. Shepard headed an independent Democratic movement in Brooklyn and was an unsuccessful candidate for Mayor. After consolidation, in 1901, he was the regular Democratic candidate for Mayor of Greater New York, but was defeated by Mr. Low. Perhaps Mr. Shepard's greatest service to the community was rendered as a trustee of the College of the City of New York. It was he who planned far in advance and in the event did more than any other man, it is said, to bring about the location of the splendid group of buildings on the commanding site now occupied by that institution. Mr. Shepard was a public servant, in the truest sense, who found the field of his life work in his native city. In the death of Senator William P. Frye, of Maine, on the eighth of last month, the country lost a servant whose activities for more than forty years had been related almost wholly to national affairs. He began his service in the House of Representatives in 1870 and after

ten years in that body was promoted to the Senate, where he has remained for five terms without interruption. For the past fifteen years Mr. Frye had been President *pro tempore* of the Senate. In 1898 he was chosen by President McKinley to head the commission appointed to negotiate a treaty of peace with Spain. In this, as in all other responsibilities with which he was entrusted during his long career, his fidelity to the public interest was unchallenged and his personal integrity unassailed.



THE LONGEST JOURNEY MADE BY AEROPLANE

(H. N. Atwood's route from St. Louis to New York)

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS

(From July 20 to August 20, 1911)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS

July 20.—In the Senate, Mr. Jones (Rep., Wash.) speaks in favor of the Canadian Reciprocity bill, and Mr. Bailey (Dem., Tex.) attacks it.

July 21.—In the Senate, the debate on the Reciprocity bill is closed, Mr. La Follette (Rep., Wis.) speaking against the measure.

July 22.—The Senate passes the Canadian Reciprocity bill, unamended, by vote of 53 to 27.

July 24.—The Senate ratifies the fur seal treaty.

July 26.—In the Senate, the bill revising the wool schedule of the Payne-Aldrich tariff is discussed; an inquiry into the value of the Sherman law is ordered. . . . In the House, the Democratic bill revising the cotton schedule is introduced.

July 27.—The Senate, by a coalition of "Progressive" Republicans and Democrats, passes a compromise Wool bill as a substitute for the House measure.

July 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Newlands (Dem., Nev.) urges his amendment to the Farmers' Free List providing for a gradual reduction of prohibitive duties. . . . The House begins debate upon the Cotton bill.

July 31.—In the Senate, Mr. Smoot (Rep., Utah) speaks against changes in the sugar schedule, and Mr. Owen (Dem., Okla.) upholds the principle of the recall in the judiciary.

August 1.—The Senate passes the Farmers' Free List bill by a coalition of Democrats and "Progressives"; the Reapportionment bill is opposed by Messrs. Root (Rep., N. Y.) and Burton (Rep., Ohio). . . . The House debates the Cotton bill.

August 2.—In the Senate, the members from New York, Messrs. O'Gorman (Dem.) and Root (Rep.), speak, respectively, for and against the Reapportionment bill; Mr. Lippitt (Rep., R. I.) argues against cotton revision.

August 3.—The Senate passes the Reapportionment bill with several amendments. . . . The House passes the Cotton Revision bill, thirty Republicans voting with the Democrats.

August 5.—In the Senate, Mr. Bourne (Rep., Ore.) speaks in favor of the radical Arizona constitution.

August 7.—In the Senate, Messrs. Root (Rep., N. Y.) and Borah (Rep., Ida.) speak against the recall of judges in the Arizona constitution.

August 8.—The Senate passes the Statehood bill, with an amendment requiring Arizona to vote again on the recall of judges.

August 10.—The Senate debates the resolution of Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) abolishing the Monetary Commission. . . . The House accepts without debate the Senate amendments to the Statehood bill.

August 11.—In the Senate, Mr. Burton (Rep., Ohio) discusses the work of the Monetary Commission.

August 12.—In the Senate, the arbitration treaties with Great Britain and France are reported from the Committee on Foreign Relations with an amendment eliminating certain powers conferred on the Joint High Commission; an investigation of the election of Mr. Stephenson (Rep., Wis.) is ordered.

August 14.—The Senate orders the dissolution of the National Monetary Commission by January 8, next. . . . The House, by vote of 206 to 90, adopts the Wool bill prepared by the conference committee.

August 15.—In the Senate, a coalition of Democrats and Progressive Republicans passes the conference Wool bill, 38 to 28.

August 17.—The Senate passes the Cotton bill, with many radical amendments; by a straight party vote, an amendment to the measure is adopted, offered by Mr. Overman (Dem., N. C.), revising the chemical schedule of the Payne-Aldrich tariff. . . . The House adopts conference committees' reports on the Farmers' Free List and Campaign Publicity bills.

August 18.—The Senate adopts a resolution admitting Arizona and New Mexico to statehood under conditions conforming with the views of President Taft. . . . The House fails to pass the Wool and Farmers' Free List bills over the President's vetoes.

August 19.—The House passes the new measure granting statehood to Arizona and New Mexico and the bill abolishing the Monetary Commission.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN

July 22.—The voters of Texas declare against statewide prohibition by a majority of 6000 out of 462,000 votes.

July 23.—President Taft issues a statement at Beverly, Mass., expressing his gratification at the

passage of the Reciprocity bill and acknowledging the aid of the Democrats.

July 24.—The Interstate Commerce Commission orders material reductions in freight rates from the middle and eastern sections of the country to points between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Coast.

July 25.—The Nebraska Republican Convention, at Lincoln, endorses the administration of President Taft.

July 31.—It is estimated that Governor Dix, of New York, has vetoed legislative appropriations amounting to more than \$7,000,000. . . . The Interstate Commerce Commission sustains the proposed increases in commutation rates of a number of railroads entering New York City, except those of the Pennsylvania Railroad.

August 1.—Former-Governor James K. Vardaman, of Texas, wins the Democratic nomination for United States Senator by a majority of 20,000, defeating Senator Percy. . . . The commission appointed by President Taft to inquire into magazine postage rates holds its first session in New York City. . . . Postal savings banks are opened in New York, Chicago, and Boston. . . . John Kenlon, who received the highest mark in the Civil Service examination, is appointed chief of the New York Fire Department.

August 4.—The Government's suit to dissolve the soft-coal combination is begun in the Circuit Court at Columbus.

August 5.—Ex-President Roosevelt testifies before the Congressional Steel Investigating Committee, at New York, that he permitted the Steel Trust to absorb the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company, in 1907, in order to check the panic, and asserts that the result justified his action.

August 8.—A number of diplomatic changes are announced, including the transfer of Minister Leishman from Italy to Germany and the appointment of Lars Anderson and Lloyd Bryce as ministers to Belgium and the Netherlands, respectively.

August 10.—The federal Court of Appeals, at New York City, upholds the conviction of three officers of the United Wireless Telegraph Company, for using the mails to defraud investors.

August 15.—President Taft vetoes the resolution admitting Arizona and New Mexico to statehood, condemning certain provisions in their constitutions.

August 16.—Dr. Harvey W. Wiley, chief chemist of the Department of Agriculture, testifies before the Congressional investigating committee that he never received the letter on which the charges against him were based.

August 17.—President Taft vetoes the bill revising the wool schedule of the Payne-Aldrich tariff, on the ground that Congress should wait until the Tariff Board reports upon that schedule.

August 18.—President Taft vetoes the Farmers' Free List bill, alleging that it is loosely drawn.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN

July 20.—Cape Haitien is captured by the Haitian revolutionists; President Simon reorganizes his cabinet.

July 22.—The Haitian rebels march toward Port-au-Prince; the cruiser *Des Moines* is sent to protect American interests.

July 24.—Premier Asquith, attempting to announce in the British House of Commons that unless the Veto bill is passed unamended the royal prerogative to create new peers will be invoked, is howled down by the extreme Tory faction. . . . The Haitian Government declares a "paper" blockade of several ports; the American minister informs President Simon that for the decree to be recognized the blockade must be real. . . . Martial law is proclaimed at Teheran, Persia, and the Premier's resignation is demanded by the National Council.

July 25.—Continued obstruction to the Reciprocity bill at Ottawa leads to a decision to dissolve Parliament and hold a general election.

July 26.—King George, in view of the complicated state of European politics, holds audiences with Government and Opposition leaders in order to avert a national crisis over the Veto bill.

July 28.—Haitian troops defeat the revolutionists at Les Cayes; a fifth American warship is ordered to Haiti. . . . Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Canadian Premier, announces a plan of co-operation between the navies of Great Britain, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. . . . Radical changes in the organization of the French army are announced.

July 29.—The Canadian Parliament is dissolved and a general election is set for September 21. . . . The Persian Government sets a reward of \$100,000 upon the head of the ex-Shah. . . . The opening of Congress at Quito, Ecuador, is accompanied by street-fighting between followers of General Alfara and President-elect Estrada.

July 30.—Sir Wilfrid Laurier opens the campaign in Canada, accusing the Conservatives of being false to their traditions; R. L. Borden, the Opposition leader, justifies the tactics which have brought reciprocity before the people.

August 1.—The revolutionists gain the upper hand in Haiti and President Simon consents to leave the country.

August 2.—Turkey offers concessions to the Albanian tribesmen refugees in Montenegro. . . . The Mexican Secretary of the Interior, Emilio Gomez, resigns at the request of President de la Barra.

August 3.—The Liberal leaders of Great Britain decide to send the Veto bill to the House of Lords without creating new peers.

August 4.—Ex-President Simon leaves Haiti on board a Dutch steamer bound for Jamaica.

August 6.—General Leconte, one of the revolutionary leaders, is proclaimed President of Haiti. . . . Chile accepts the bid of an English shipbuilding concern for the construction of two dreadnaughts.

August 8.—A vote of censure on the Government is passed in the British House of Lords by a majority of 214.

August 10.—The Veto bill, unamended, is accepted by the House of Lords by a vote of 131 to 114, more than 300 peers refusing to vote; the House of Commons votes for the payment of a salary of \$2000 to members.

August 14.—General Cincinnatus Leconte is elected President by the Haitian Congress.

August 15.—Premier Laurier of Canada and the Opposition leader, R. L. Borden, deliver important speeches for and against reciprocity.

August 18.—Royal assent is given to the Veto bill, limiting the power of the British upper house. . . . The Russian Government awards contracts for the construction of three battleships.

August 19.—The Portuguese National Assembly signs the constitution of the new republic. . . . Emilio Estrada is declared elected as President of Ecuador.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

July 21.—The Persian Government criticises Great Britain and Russia for indifference concerning the present activity of the deposed Shah, Mohammed Ali Mirza.

July 26.—Queen Wilhelmina of Holland visits King Albert at Brussels; it is rumored that an agreement is contemplated to act jointly in the event of their countries' neutrality being threatened.

July 28.—The terms of the Franco-Spanish *modus vivendi* to prevent trouble at Alcazar, Morocco, are outlined by the Spanish Premier. . . . The Portuguese Republic again protests against Spain's permitting anti-republican plotters to meet in Spanish territory.

July 29.—The Austrian Premier announces governmental opposition to the importation of American meat.

July 31.—The Russian minister to Persia moves to force the resignation of the American Treasurer-General, W. M. Shuster.

August 1.—The German minister to Persia joins in the movement against the American Treasurer-General.

August 2.—Two newspaper correspondents, one an American, are expelled from Agadir, Morocco.

August 3.—New arbitration treaties with Great Britain and France, practically unlimited in their scope, are signed at Washington. . . . The International Peace Conference, at Berne, Switzerland, takes steps to form a permanent bureau of peace.

August 4.—It is reported from Berlin that an agreement has been reached, involving the trading of colonial possessions, in the dispute between France and Germany over Morocco; the Kaiser is bitterly assailed by several German newspapers for his timidity (see page 305).

August 5.—A battle is reported between Colombian and Peruvian troops in the disputed territory of Caqueta.

August 6.—Laboring men of France and Spain meet in Madrid to protest against military operations by their governments in Morocco.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH

July 20.—It is announced at Lima, Peru, that Miss Annie Peck has ascended two peaks of the volcano Coropuna, nearly 20,000 feet high. . . . *Schwanen I.*, Count Zeppelin's new dirigible balloon, makes the round trip between Friedrichshafen and Lucerne, carrying eight passengers.

July 21.—The Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company is awarded the new subway system of New York City, comprising 87 miles of underground and elevated lines, to cost \$235,000,000.

July 23.—Fire devastates two square miles of the Stamboul district of Constantinople, destroying more than 5000 houses.

July 24.—Earth shocks are felt at Guatemala City and Curaçao.

July 26.—Golden Gate Park is selected as the site for the Panama-Pacific Exposition at San Francisco in 1915. . . . Lieutenant Conneau, of the French army, wins the 1000-mile aeroplane race around England and Scotland, begun on July 22. . . . The Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company, New York City, announces a 5-cent fare to Coney Island during certain hours. . . . The Universal Races Congress opens at London (see page 339).

July 27.—Eight persons are killed in a head-on collision between freight and passenger trains near Charlotte, N. C.

July 31.—More than 150 cotton mills in the Carolinas are closed because of drought. . . . Forest fires in the mountains of Southern California spread rapidly over large areas. . . . Work is begun on the recently authorized subway system in New York City. . . . The Standard Oil Company announces its plan of dissolution to conform with the Supreme Court's decision.

August 2.—A strike of 12,000 dock laborers is declared at London.

August 3.—One hundred cases of pellagra are reported in Bell and Whiteley Counties, Ky.

August 4.—Admiral Togo is welcomed on his arrival at New York City by officials of the nation, State, and city.

August 5.—A lockout is declared against 19,000 metal workers in Leipscig and Thuringia, Germany. . . . Scores of persons are injured during rioting by striking street-car employees in Brooklyn, New York City. . . . Two aviators, Lincoln Beachey and Hugh A. Robinson, fly from New York to Philadelphia (112 miles) in 2 hours and 22 minutes. . . . Captain Felix, of France, ascends in an aeroplane to a height of 11,330 feet.

August 6.—The strike of trolley men at Des Moines is ended by a court order obtained by city officials; the dispute is to be settled later.

August 8.—The London dock strike spreads, it being estimated that 70,000 men are out.

August 9.—The French steamer *Emir* founders in the Mediterranean after a collision with a British steamer; 86 of the passengers and crew are drowned. . . . The tenth Zionist Congress opens at Basle, Switzerland. . . . The Government report shows a serious condition of the grain crops, the worst in ten years. . . . The Carlton Hotel, in London, is partially destroyed by fire, one person being burned to death. . . . Jules Vedrines, flying near Paris, covers more than 500 miles in about eight hours, a new record for distance.

August 10.—Pope Pius X, suffering from gout, withstands a minor operation to relieve pain.

August 11.—The London carmen's and lightermen's strikes are settled; the dock strike at Liverpool grows more serious.

August 12.—Dr. Doyen, of Paris, after five years' experimenting, announces a cure for the foot-and-mouth disease of cattle.

August 13.—A negro accused of murder is burned to death by a mob at Coatesville, Pa. . . . A fast Pennsylvania Railroad train from Chicago to New York is wrecked near Ft. Wayne, Ind.; four persons are killed and thirty injured.

August 14.—Harry N. Atwood starts from St. Louis in an attempt to fly to New York, and reaches Chicago. . . . A strike is declared among the dock workers and railway men of Liverpool.

August 15.—A general strike of 100,000 railway employees throughout Great Britain is threatened; several strike sympathizers in Liverpool are killed when government troops are compelled to fire upon the rioters. . . . Two aviators lose their lives at the Chicago meet.

August 16.—Three men are arrested at Coatesville, Pa., in connection with the burning of the negro.

August 17.—A general strike is declared on all British railways. . . . An official report indicates a total of 632 deaths from cholera in Italy during five days.

August 18.—The efforts of several members of the British cabinet to settle the railway strike are without apparent result; service on the roads is seriously affected and a food scarcity is imminent. . . . The price of beef in New York City advances to a point 54 per cent. higher than on December 1.

August 19.—An agreement is reached in the British Railway strike, mainly through the efforts of Chancellor Lloyd-George, whereby the dispute is to be referred to a royal commission. . . . Andre Jaeger-Schmidt, a French journalist attempting to circle the globe in forty days, sails from New York; barring accident he will arrive in Paris on the fortieth day.

August 20.—Harry Atwood arrives at Lyons, N. Y., in his aeroplane flight from St. Louis to New York; his actual flying time for the 930 miles so far accomplished is less than twenty hours.

OBITUARY

July 19.—Rev. Dr. Caleb Cook Baldwin, translator of the Bible into Chinese and compiler of a Chinese-English dictionary, 91.

July 20.—Johann Martin Schleyer, inventor of the international language known as "Volapük," 80. . . . Charles Walter Stetson, a noted artist, 52.

July 22.—Sir Percy William Bunting, editor of the *Contemporary Review*, 75 (see page 352).

July 23.—John W. Tomlinson, Democratic national committeeman for Alabama, 52. . . . Edwin A. Nash, formerly justice of the Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court, 74.

July 25.—Ex-Congressman George Washington Kipp, of Pennsylvania, 64. . . . Joseph F. Tucker, a widely known railroad man of Chicago, 76.

July 26.—Minnetta Taylor, a noted linguist and author of textbooks, 51.

July 27.—Edward Rutledge, a prominent lumberman of Wisconsin, 78.

July 28.—Edward M. Shepard, the noted New York lawyer and prominent Democrat, 61. . . . Major William P. Atwell, U. S. A., retired, American consul at Ghent, 66. . . . Naoum Pacha, Turkish ambassador to France.

July 29.—Robert Dewey Benedict, a prominent Vermont lawyer and compiler of law volumes, 81.

July 31.—Frederick Loeser, founder of the well-known department store of Brooklyn, N. Y., 77.

August 1.—Edwin A. Abbey, the noted American artist, 59 (see page 300). . . . Rev. Dr. Willard Francis Mallalieu, Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, 83.

August 2.—Rt. Rev. Francis Paget, D.D., Bishop of Oxford, 60. . . . Very Rev. Robert Gregory, D.D., formerly dean of St. Paul's (London), 92. . . . Leslie Coombs Bruce, the well-known rifle shot and publisher of *Turf, Field and Farm*, 62.

August 3.—Edward Murphy, four times mayor of Troy, N. Y., 75. . . . Prof. Reinhold Begas, the eminent German sculptor, 80.

August 5.—Bishop Oscar Penn Fitzgerald, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, a widely known editor and author, 82. . . . Cardinal Gruscha, of Austria. . . . Col. William C. Green, the copper-mine operator, 60. . . . Franklin H. King, of Wisconsin, a noted agricultural scientist, 63.

August 6.—Rev. Dr. William Wallace Atterbury, the well-known advocate of Sunday observance, 88. . . . Joseph Parry, a Utah pioneer, known as the "father of irrigation," 86.

August 8.—William Pierce Frye, for thirty years United States Senator from Maine, 79.

August 9.—Gen. George W. Gordon, commander-in-chief of the United Confederate Veterans and Member of Congress from Tennessee, 75. . . . John W. Gates, the financier, 56. . . . Peter Robertson, the dramatic critic of San Francisco. . . . William A. Deering, advertising manager of the *New York Sun*, 53.

August 10.—Heinrich von Poschinger, the German political writer, 65.

August 11.—Alfred Bayard Nettleton, brevet brigadier-general at the close of the Civil War and founder of the Minneapolis *Tribune*, 73. . . . John Townshend, of New York, author of many legal works of reference, 91.

August 12.—Henry Clay Loudenslager, for ten terms Congressman from the First New Jersey District, 59. . . . Josef Israels, the Dutch painter, 87.

August 13.—Dr. Frank P. Foster, for thirty-one years editor of the *New York Medical Journal*, 69.

August 15.—Major Henry Reed Rathbone, who was with President Lincoln at the time of his assassination, 74. . . . Rev. Dr. William Curtis Styles, associate editor of the *Homiletic Review*, 60.

August 16.—Patrick Francis, Cardinal Moran, of New South Wales, 80. . . . Rt. Rev. John Wordsworth, Bishop of Salisbury (England), 67. . . . Dr. Paul Georges Dieulafoy, an eminent French physician, 72. . . . John H. Osborne, a pioneer in the harvesting-implement industry, 79.

August 17.—Mrs. Myrtle Reed McCullough, well known as a writer of fiction and compiler of cook books, under the pen names "Myrtle Reed" and "Olive Green," 37.

August 18.—Baron James of Hereford, a noted English lawyer and Unionist leader, 83. . . . Francis Collingwood, a prominent civil engineer of New York, 77.



CARTOONS OF THE MONTH



THE THREE GUARDSMEN. From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle)

AMONG the recent achievements of our present situation in Morocco suggests to the State Department are the arbitration treaties negotiated between our Government and those of England and France. The



SIGNS OF THE SEASON
From the *Daily News* (Chicago)

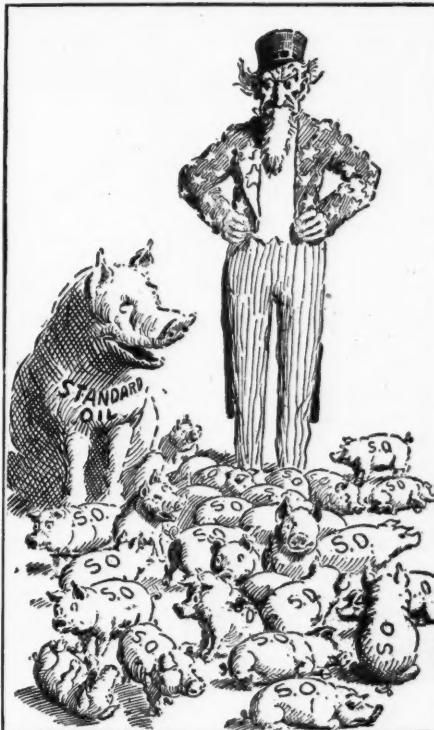


JOHN BULL (to Germany): "Hi say, don't hang around there very long; I can do all the watching necessary"
From the *American* (Baltimore)



THE REPUBLICAN BLACK HORSE CAVALRY MUST TAKE OFF ITS HAT TO THE DONKEY IN NEW YORK STATE
From the *Herald* (New York)

The above cartoon is intended as a commentary on the recent Democratic legislature in New York. The other cartoons on this page



"PIGS IS PIGS"
From the *Post-Dispatch* (St. Louis)

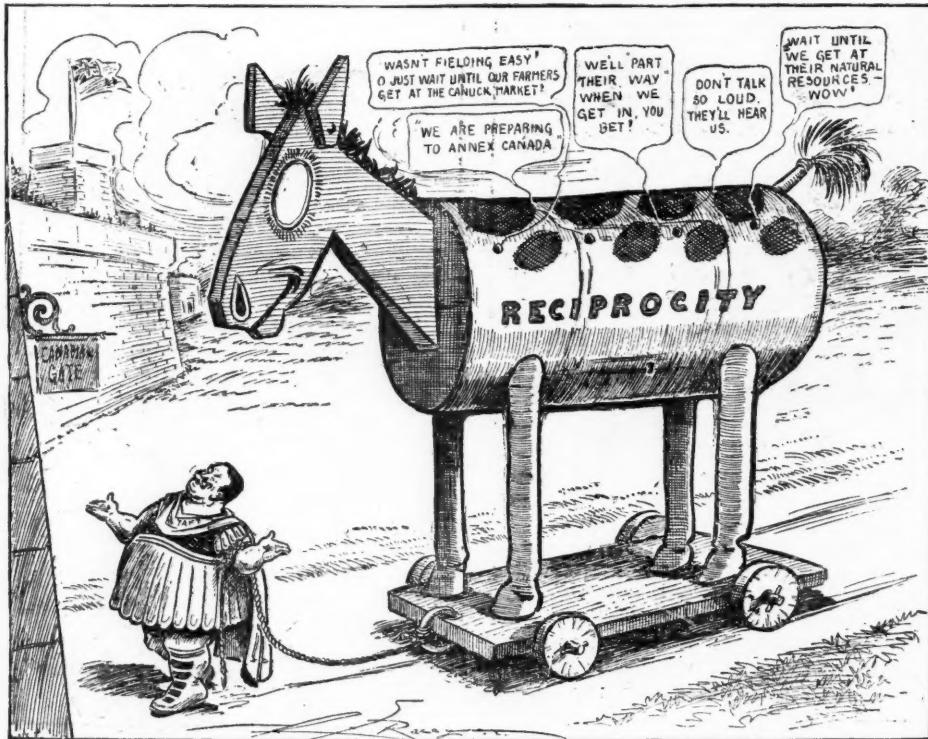
refer to the breaking-up of the Standard Oil trust into its constituent companies, the Congressional investigations, and the Government's conservation of Alaska's natural resources.



UNCLE SAM GETTING ENOUGH OF IT
The Democratic party's fruitless investigations
From the *Tribune* (New York)



NAILING IT DOWN
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis)



WILL THE TROJAN GIFT HORSE BE ADMITTED?
PRESIDENT TAFT (to Canada): "Isn't he a peach of a horse? And it's all for you, with Uncle Sam's love!"
From the *Star* (Montreal)

Now that the Reciprocity bill has been rejected the arrangement. There is a good deal passed by Congress and approved by the of discussion of the measure pro and con in the present Canadian elections campaign, the opposition being well expressed by the Trojan horse cartoon reproduced above.



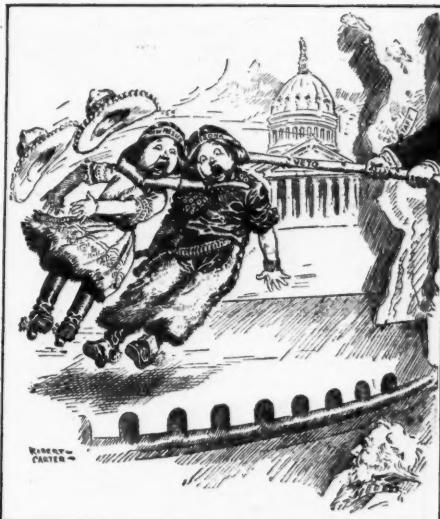
LEAVING SOMETHING ON CANADA'S DOORSTEP
From the *Herald* (Montreal)



HURRY UP WITH THAT TONIC
From the *Herald* (Montreal)

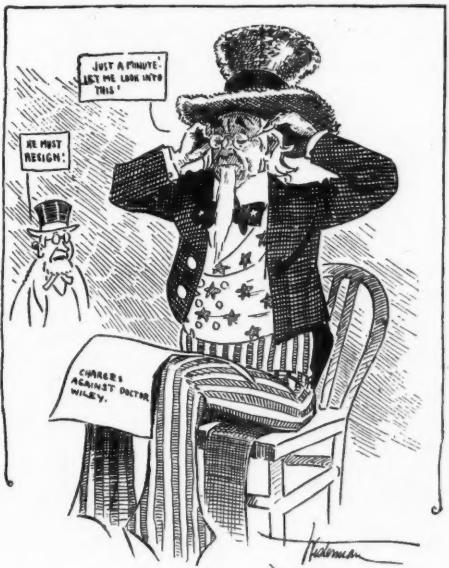


BANZAI!
From the *World* (New York)



"RECALLED"
From the *American* (New York)

Admiral Togó was given a most cordial reception to our shores, and apparently enjoyed his visit to America. Owing to the judiciary-recall feature of Arizona's constitution the President vetoed the Statehood bill, which was later changed to omit the objectionable clause. Two other vetoes partly answered the question in the cartoon as to whether the hen would "mother" the Wool, Free List and Cotton bills.



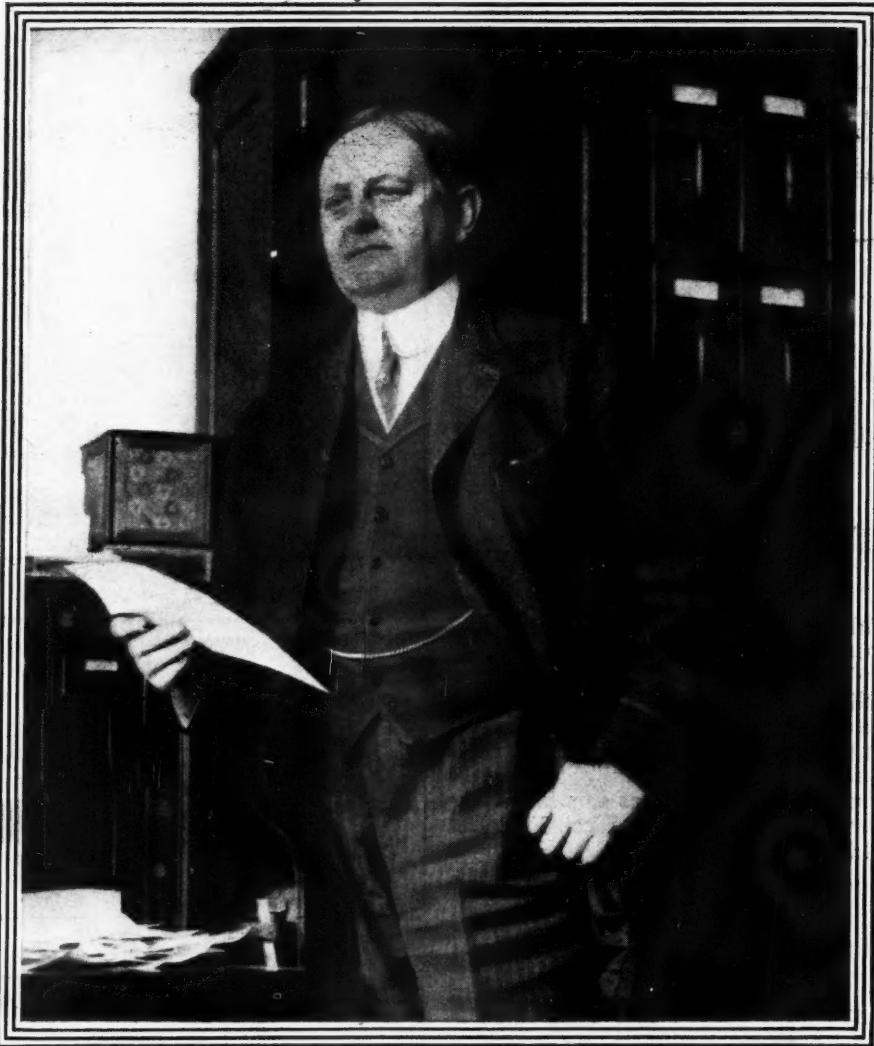
REMEMBER PINCHOT, GLAVIS, ETC.
From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus)



WILL SHE MOTHER 'EM?
From the *Traveler* (Boston)



CLIPPING THE WINGS OF THE WHITE HOUSE DOVE
From the *Press* (New York)



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UNDERWOOD, OF ALABAMA, DEMOCRACY'S NEW CHIEFTAIN

BY ROBERT WICKLIFFE WOOLLEY

DESCENDANT of a proud race, Oscar W. Underwood is the intellectual superior of those of his forbears who have figured prominently in American history and is probably blessed with more of the genius of leadership than was any other chairman of the Ways and Means Committee since the Civil War. This may read like heresy to the admirers of William L. Wilson, William R. Morrison, Samuel J. Randall, Roger Q.

Mills, William McKinley, and Nelson Ding-Wey, but if they will readjust their spectacles and analyze the facts they will be forced to admit there is justification for the statement. Mr. Underwood is credited with being better informed on the tariff than any other living Democrat. This reputation is not entirely due to the fact that he is chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the lower House of Congress; rather has the

exalted office come to him as the result of years of study and practical experience in the making of tariff measures. It is doubtful if a more capable and highly trained expert—Democrat, Whig or Republican—ever attained to the position and certain it is that none before him has ever wielded so much power. For, be it known, the Ways and Means Committee is also the Committee on Committees in the Sixty-second Congress. Therefore, as chairman, he practically directed the appointments to all other committees—a right which vested in the Speaker of every Congress from the Second to the present one—and so wisely was the work done that those who hastened to censure are now glad to praise.

In the past few months, Mr. Underwood has taken the country by the ears with his vigorous replies to William Jennings Bryan. Twice has the Nebraskan attacked him and twice has this same Nebraskan come out second best; in the latter encounter, at least, was he called anything but a truthful person in as highly polished and categorical language as parliamentary usage would permit. In Underwood has Bryan found one man worthy of his steel, who, though he seeks not to be a foe, dodges no battle for fear of adverse political consequences.

One big thing about this astute statesman of the South is that he steers such an even course, pilots in such a masterly fashion, as to win the unqualified admiration even of his bitterest political opponents. Reactionary Republicans indulge on the floor of the House in a lot of high-sounding ridicule of his acts, but in the protected confines of the cloak room they tell an entirely different story. On one recent memorable occasion, when the Farmers Free List bill was under discussion, brilliant and stand-patting John Dalzell testified publicly to his regard for Mr. Underwood's courtesy and ability. Another big thing about Underwood is that he is seeing that the Democrats of the House make good their party's chief pledge—genuine downward revision of the tariff.

Have you ever seen this person of whom you heard comparatively little so late as a year ago, but who has quickly become the second most powerful man in the land, President Taft being first? If you have, you have beheld a clean-cut, well-groomed, soberly attired, scholarly looking gentleman. I will pass rapidly over that correctly-trimmed hair, carefully parted in the middle and plastered tight to the cranium; that clean-shaven face with the smile which has

never worn off; that freshly pressed suit and those glistening boots. Much has been written concerning them. It is only worth while to say they are not in the least due to affectation. This neatness simply bespeaks the well-bred, orderly man. And above all things is Underwood orderly. It has been said of him that he started life with a card index system for his marbles, his horse-shoe nails and his jack-knives. Under many a chairman was there chaos in the offices of the Ways and Means Committee, but to-day these resemble the suite of a Wall Street banker.

The onlooker's first impression is not that Oscar Underwood is a great man, though he measures well as he stands erect, looking every inch a six-footer, points the index finger of his right hand sharply at the chair and drawls out, with a charming southern inflection:

"M-i-s-t-e-r Spe-a-ker!"

Rather has he an irresistible way of gradually growing on one. To the casual visitor to the House galleries he is not always a pleasing orator. Though he possesses to a marked degree the power of direct statement and never indulges in buncombe, meant for digestion by the gullible "back home," he leans heavily toward the deadly serious—as possibly a lifelong student of the tariff should. He enjoys a good story, but never tells one; he is the despair of habitual jokesmiths at the capital. To his associates Underwood appears at his best in the committee room. There they know him as a mine of carefully-assorted, well-digested, and correctly-tagged information, as the soul of intellectual integrity and the personification of common sense. On the floor he is at his best in the thick of a rapid-fire debate or when straightening out a parliamentary tangle. His knowledge of the rules and of precedents governing their interpretation surpasses even that of Speaker Clark; his only peers in this respect on the Democratic side are John J. Fitzgerald, of New York, and Swager Sherley, of Kentucky.

Oscar Underwood is an Alabamian only by adoption. He was born at Louisville in 1862, the son of a lawyer and grandson of Joseph R. Underwood, who emigrated to Kentucky from Virginia in 1800 and in due time became a Representative and Senator in Congress. He attended the Rugby School at Louisville and later graduated in law from the University of Virginia. It is interesting to note that Sherley, nine years younger than Underwood, was also born at Louisville and attended the University of Virginia; that

Speaker Champ Clark was born and grew to whose greatest achievements had been getmanhood in Anderson County, Kentucky, ting speeches which never were delivered just sixty miles distant; that Augustus O. published in the *Congressional Record*, asking Stanley, chairman of the House committee which is investigating the United States Steel Corporation, was born and reared at Shelbyville, Kentucky, forty miles from Louisville; that Ben Johnson, chairman of the important District of Columbia Committee, was born and still resides at Bardstown, also about forty miles distant; and that Ollie James, one of the real rulers of the House, is a product and the representative of the Western, or "Purchase," end of Kentucky.

Underwood removed in 1884 to Birmingham, when that town boasted scant 5000 inhabitants, and hung out his shingle. From the start he took a deep and abiding interest in politics; the result was that ten years later he was elected to Congress. There he has been ever since, quietly but surely developing into one of the big public men of his time.

Which one of Mr. Underwood's illustrious predecessors ever had to deal with such a wild, apparently untamable lot of patriots; had to rehabilitate his party before the people with the aid of a band of legislators whose chief characteristics seemed to be differences of opinion and pronounced mediocrity? Did you ever consider that of those Democrats now members of the House who served in the Sixty-first and previous Congresses, not more than ten had ever shown themselves when Underwood took hold, to be worth more than their salt to the country at large? Think it over. See if you do not, regardless of your political beliefs, conclude that the man's accomplishments to date are fairly remarkable.

Some ordinary mortals may be filled with humility, but none of this species ever breaks into Congress. Good opinion of Number One is the rule there—and the smaller the justification, the greater the opinion. That is what made it hard for Underwood and his associates on the Committee on Committees so to organize the House as to get the best results. Of course, a big majority of the ranking Democratic members of the standing committees of the last House were from the South. For sixteen years that had been about the only section of the country in which a Democrat was reasonably sure of succeeding himself, or any one else. The North, naturally, was placed on the defensive. A number of these men possessed real ability; others were mere time-servers

Pressure came from all sides to ignore seniority and to select the chairmen solely because of their ability and fitness. That seemed the only right thing to do. But the consideration of prime importance was harmony. By following the rule of seniority there was a chance to achieve it; Underwood, also Speaker Clark, saw that any other course would lead to turmoil. So the seniority rule was pretty closely observed, though it was stretched a bit to give the Northern States sixteen chairmanships.

This arrangement made the work of the leader much harder than if merit alone had been considered in making up the committees. He is frequently bothered with details which his deputy leaders should attend to. But so far Underwood has handled the job as a master should, and even those who would like best to see him fail believe he will continue to succeed conspicuously.

Now, the captious have said that because the Democrats have such a substantial majority it is extravagant to give the floor leader more than passing credit for the efficiently prepared and promptly passed Farmers Free List bill, the Wool bill, the Cotton Schedule bill; for the handsome support rendered President Taft in his effort to establish reciprocity between the United States and Canada, and for other things which the House has done so well at the extraordinary session. Fulsome praise, of course, is unnecessary and often works injustice to the person upon whom it is lavished. But the truth can do no harm in this case, at least. In the Sixty-first Congress, the Democrats and Insurgent Republicans succeeded in curtailing the power of the Speaker to a certain extent and so aroused the country at large that Mr. Cannon and the rules which bore his name were a big issue in the last campaign. Not until the eleventh hour after election did Champ Clark, the only person seriously spoken of as "Uncle Joe's" successor, formally commit himself to the proposition to take the appointing power away from the Speaker and entrust it to a Committee on Committees. Once he did so, he washed his hands of the details and the responsibility. As a consequence, he is

literally the moderator that the rebellious preparation some weeks ago. A great majority of recent days intended he should be. His power is still greater than that of the Vice President, but it is second to the power of the floor leader of the majority—a condition which never before existed.

Knowledge of this fact and of the real attitude of Mr. Clark causes the adherents and other admirers of Underwood to smile when they read in certain newspapers and magazines that all credit is due the Speaker for the harmony which is so noticeable on the Democratic side of the House to-day. Right here let me emphasize the fact that there is no friction between Clark and Underwood. They understand each other perfectly and each is in full accord with what the other does. Of course, this concord may not last forever. It surely will not if certain of their respective ardent henchmen succeed in what seems to be a robust effort to create a breach between them. Those who would detract from the Speaker's glory say he took a seat on the fence the day he was nominated by the Democratic caucus—because he is a candidate for the Presidency and doesn't wish to hurt any one's feelings; Underwood's critics say he, too, is flirting with Presidential lightning and that he has been assuming more responsibility than the situation has warranted. And there you are!

Clark and Underwood work together as perfectly as a pair of prize coach horses. How they did arouse the ire of "Uncle Joe" Cannon and Minority Leader Mann on May 8 last, the day the Farmers' Free List was passed by the House! By way of protest, the Republicans submitted amendment after amendment—about one hundred in all—and each was promptly declared out of order, under the new rule which prevents the offering of amendments to a revenue measure not germane to the subject matter of that measure.

"Great heavens!" cried out Mr. Cannon, glaring at Underwood—he was never so happy in his day of power as when giving the same kind of performance—"Upon what meat has this our Cæsar fed that he should grow so great? Is the creature greater than the creator?"

Because Oscar Underwood is intensely practical and never attempts to legislate with the aid of a brass band or scare-head lines, he has frequently been accused by the radicals in both parties of being at heart a protectionist. This charge was reiterated when the House Wool bill was in course of

country at large were undoubtedly in favor of placing wool and woollen goods on the Free List. But Underwood saw that to offer to the Senate and eventually to the President a measure which would shut off a big source of revenue and provide no other in its place would be bad politics and worse business. Bryan threatened him with excommunication from the Democratic party, but Underwood called a caucus—and the Wool bill, providing only for marked reductions in the duties, was passed.

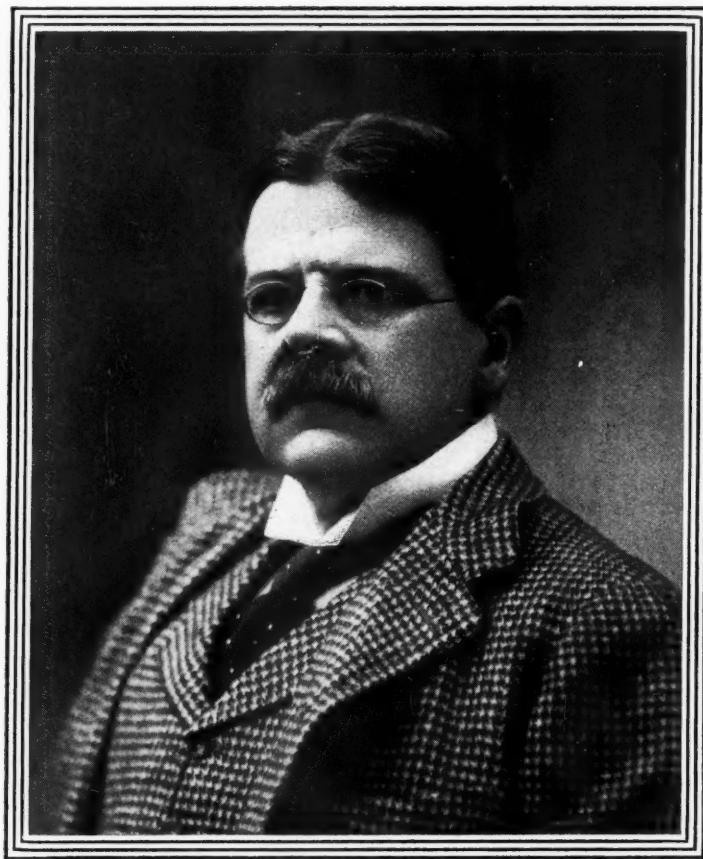
In connection with Mr. Bryan's latest charge that Mr. Underwood, who owns a substantial interest in a big iron concern at Birmingham, has been opposing a revision of the iron and steel schedule, and Mr. Underwood's spirited reply, supported by Representative Claude Kitchin, an ardent Bryanite, that he had asked the Ways and Means Committee to take up this schedule first of all, it is interesting to note the Alabamian's answer two years ago to the Birmingham Commercial Club's protest against reduction of the duty on pig iron below \$4 a ton in the Payne-Aldrich bill.

"I have never been in favor of a protective tariff for protection's sake," he wired. "I have always believed in a tariff for revenue only. I think \$4 a ton on pig iron is prohibitive and that it ought to be reduced."

Whereupon he voted for a duty of \$2.50 per ton and was re-elected to Congress without opposition.

Oscar Underwood's name will undoubtedly be presented to the next Democratic National Convention. Alabama and possibly other Southern States will probably give him a handsome complimentary vote for the Presidential nomination; it is not altogether improbable that second place on the ticket will go to him. There are many who believe he will some day be the first Democratic President elected from Dixie since James K. Polk was chosen in 1844.

Mr. Underwood is proud of the social achievements of his wife, and is greatly interested in the future of his two sons—his only children—one of whom is just starting in the iron and steel business at Birmingham and the other of whom is a law student at the University of Virginia. But first of all he is a home man. He is happy in his library, is of abstemious habits and has many years of usefulness before him. An earnest apostle of Jefferson, he is a constructive statesman.



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EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY

EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY, AMERICA'S GREATEST ILLUSTRATOR

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT

EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY, who died in England on August 1, was America's greatest illustrator, and ranked high among the great illustrators of the world, while as a decorative painter he had won British and American commendation.

Abbey was born in Philadelphia in 1852. He early showed talent for drawing. Report has it that when he was only fourteen he drew a rebus that was published in "Oliver Optic's Boys and Girls," and that "the artist used to say in later years that not even the commission to paint the coronation of King Edward had pleased him so much as the appearance of his first artistic attempt in public print."

He worked in a wood engraving shop in his native city, and attended classes at the Academy of Fine Arts in the evening. It is also reported that before he was twenty a sketch called "The First Thanksgiving" was accepted by the Harpers. At any rate 1871 finds him in New York drawing regularly for Harper's publications, doing all kinds of hack work, drawing from photographs on boxwood for the engraver to cut (photographing upon the block was not then in vogue), making comic cuts for "The Editor's Drawer," illustrating stories and articles.

In all this work he showed the ability to enter into the spirit of his text, and to charge his drawings with color, picturesque-

ness and detail, lifting them above the other illustrations in the periodicals of the times, which were flat and unprofitable. (Though in isolated cases, as in the work of La Farge, Vedder, and Winslow Homer, some spirited designs had already appeared.)

AT TWENTY-TWO HE STRIKES THE KEYNOTE OF HIS STYLE

In May, 1874, *Harper's Magazine* republished a 17th Century poem, "Corinne's Going A-Maying," by Robert Herrick, with four illustrations. Three were crude in design, but the first one, of a lover standing below his lady's window, had a striking color quality that made it stand out amid the dull "woodcuts" in the rest of the magazine; it was signed Abbey. It was a wonderful drawing for a youth of twenty-two, and though he later on improved the correctness of his drawing, yet in this early example he struck the keynote of his life's work; his style never changed.

HIS BEST ILLUSTRATIONS

From then on Abbey, by leaps and bounds, reached, and held his own, in the front rank of American illustrators. His Colonial and Elizabethan subjects were unique in vividness and picturesqueness.

In 1878 he was sent by the Harpers to England to gather material for illustrations to Robert Herrick's poems. Abbey executed some of his best illustrations between the years 1878 and 1889.

There is a remarkable sureness of drawing, yet it is stately and spontaneous in effect, and a rare feeling for color, and an absence of mannerism, in the work of this period.

The date of publication in book form of some of his commissions of this time are,—

1882, "Selections from the Hesperides" and "Notable Numbers," by Robert Herrick,—1887, "She Stoops to Conquer," by Goldsmith,—1889, "Old Songs." "The Quiet Life," a collection of verses by Marvell, Pope, Cowley and Austin Dobson (the landscape illustrations being by Alfred Parsons), was published in 1890, but many of the drawings were made much earlier.

"The Comedies of Shakespeare," 1895, show us the work of a draughtsman still more sure of his technique, but at times he is more "mannered" than in his early work, and the characters are not always quite as refined as one would wish, but these are by all odds the most artistic illustrations to Shakespeare that have ever appeared. In Goldsmith's "Deserted Village," 1896, the grouping is very charming, and the English landscape most accurately and fully noted.

A MASTER OF DETAIL

Rendering of detail was perhaps his greatest forte. This was what delighted us in Abbey's illustrations in the eighties. When other artists illustrated colonial or English stories, they had been content to introduce, as accessories, any chairs, any cupboards, any pictures on the walls. But here was a young draughtsman who had



Copyright by Harper & Brothers, New York
ILLUSTRATION TO "A LOVE SONG," BY GEORGE WITHER,
IN "HARPER'S MAGAZINE," OCTOBER, 1887. PEN
DRAWING BY EDWIN AUSTIN ABBEY

(When drawings of this kind, rich in color, and full of vivacity, began to appear in our magazines, it was recognized that an American illustrator of superlative talent had arrived—and Abbey's name soon became synonymous with great illustrating. His Puritan and Elizabethan costumes seem to fit his models—he never drew a puppet-clad figure)

gone to the trouble to draw a Windsor chair with all its proper turnings, a Georgian highboy with all its severity of outline, its simplicity of brass mountings! A picture on the wall was truly an 18th Century sporting print in a mahogany frame! And in the fireplace how accurately drawn are those huge firedogs, and the spit, and low tripod kettle! And how the light and shade played around the forms of these objects! Here was a conscientious artist indeed.



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"THE SPIRIT OF VULCAN"

(Decoration for the Pennsylvania Capitol. By Edwin Austin Abbey)

HIS DECORATIVE INSTINCT

Abbey always possessed the decorative instinct. We see it in his early vignetted illustrations, and compositions in rectangles half the size of the page, the rest of it taken up by flying leaves or birds, or by quaint old English lettering. And when he occupied a quaint little building in West 10th Street, the "Tile Club" met in his studio and the members decorated tiles for one another. Perhaps these were never set into a wall, thus leading toward mural decoration, as the tiles William Morris designed led him to interior decoration, but they may have engendered in Abbey's mind a desire to decorate. At any rate about 1880 we find him painting a large panel for the Hotel Imperial New York, "Playing Bowls in New Amsterdam"—a glimpse of the old bowling green at the Battery, a "Half Moon"-like ship anchored in the harbor—a windmill, five tiny, much begabled, brick houses, and in the foreground a party of our Dutch ancestors in their voluminous trousers, playing at bowls.

THE "HOLY GRAIL" SERIES

It was not till some years later, however, that he took up the decorative series by which he is best known—The "Holy Grail" panels in the Boston Public Library, familiar to many tourists who have seen them there, and to thousands of school children who have

become familiar with them through the "Copley Print" reproductions.

These were begun in 1891. They consist of panels portraying the legend of "The Holy Grail," an ideal subject for a library decoration. From a critical standpoint they are not good decorations, but are, rather, puzzle pictures that the public loves to stand before and unravel with the help of a guide book, fascinated by the episodic themes, and the mediæval details of costume. On the other hand, the general public have greatly approved of these pictures; the scholarship back of their planning should be recognized.

HIS "CORONATION OF EDWARD VII"

Abbey was commissioned to paint "The Coronation of Edward VII in Westminster Abbey," in 1902. The painting 15 feet long by 6 feet high hangs in Windsor Castle. (By a remarkable coincidence the companion picture, the Coronation of Queen Victoria, was painted also by a Philadelphian, Charles R. Leslie!) This picture increased Abbey's fame in England—he had been made a member of the Royal Academy in 1898—so that he was ranked among the leading painters of the day.

Abbey's canvases are entirely lacking in charm of technique. Their attributes, that captivate, are the richness of their coloring, and the voluptuousness of their detail.

The characterization of types is not always



Copyright, 1908, by Edwin Austin Abbey. From a Copley Print, copyright, 1908, by Curtis & Cameron.

"THE SPIRIT OF LIGHT"

(Decoration for the Pennsylvania Capitol. By Edwin Austin Abbey)

convincing, but it is above the commonplace. We are certain that the artist conceived a definite idea of his type, that it is out of the ordinary, and worthy of our attention. Even more personal is his costuming of these characters, and the scenery that surrounds them. Take the mammoth headdress and trailing veil of Lady Anne, in "Richard, Duke of Gloucester and the Lady Anne" (shown at the Royal Academy, 1896), the very conception throughout is Abbey's, not another artist in the world ever would have thought out this striking paraphernalia.

PENNSYLVANIA CAPITOL DECORATIONS

The last decorations Abbey undertook which he left unfinished at his death were those for the State Capitol at Harrisburg. It was quite proper that he as a son of a Pennsylvanian should have received this commission.

A number of orders for decorations of the building were given early in the eighties to Abbey, Alexander and others, but when the graft exposé came in 1905 these orders were rescinded, and it looked for a time as though the Capitol was to go without mural adornment, but later the authorities had the good sense to realize that this would be an irreparable loss to the State, and matters were finally adjusted so that in 1907 the Abbey decorations were recontracted for at a sum, it is said, of \$212,000.

The plan for these decorations (as best we can gather from available data at the present writing) was for nine panels, to be distributed in the Supreme Court Chamber, the Hall of the House and the Senate Chamber.

The subject matter of the pictures was recently described by "I. N. F." in the New York *Tribune*, from which we learn that the paintings are now in Abbey's big studio at Shepard's Bush, England. When in place, the Speaker's desk will be flanked by two panels commemorating "Penn's Treaty with the Indians," and "The Signing of the Declaration"; the circular ceiling will show the "Flight of the Hours."

Another canvas symbolizes the "Apotheosis of Pennsylvania"; in it "two gray columns with gilded capitals carry the spectator's eye toward the sumptuous temple, where the 'Genius of State' is enthroned behind laurel under the majestic dome of blue and white sky. Around the temple are grouped the worthies who have helped to shape the destinies of the Commonwealth and to crown it with honor"—Sir Walter Raleigh, the organizer of Colonial settlements; Hudson, who sighted Delaware Bay; Peter Minuit, who left the Swedish flag at the headwaters of the Chesapeake; types like the Scotch-Irish scout represent the Westward making pioneer, and "a group of dark fantastic figures like 'the Woman of the Wilderness' represent the religious refugees from many lands."



Copyright, 1908, by Edwin Austin Abbey. From a Copley Print, copyright, 1908, by Curtis & Cameron

"SCIENCE REVEALING THE TREASURES OF THE EARTH"

(Decoration for the Pennsylvania Capitol. By Edwin Austin Abbey)

"The allegory passes in the second line to soldiers of the Revolution, signers of the Declaration and men of action, philosophy and science." Here are Anthony Wayne, John Dickinson, Thomas MacKean, Bishop White, Muhlenberg, Dallas, Caspar Wistar, John Fitch, Oliver Evans, David Rittenhouse, Benjamin Rush, Stephen Girard, Tom Paine; in a central group are, William Penn, Benjamin Franklin, and Robert Morris.

"In the foreground on the right are groups of miners and iron and steel workers, in a ruddy glow of furnace fires, and in the opposite quarter there are soldiers and sailors in blue, with drummer boys in the first file, and Generals Meade and Hancock mounted behind them, with grim Thaddeus Stevens and energetic Governor Curtin looking on, and with the blue State flag behind them with the Stars and Stripes."

In "Penn's Treaty with the Indians" is a wealth of golden tone in the great tree with its autumnal tints.

The circular ceiling, twenty-four feet in diameter, is a "medieval chart, toned from light to dark blues, of the zone of starry heavens, within which lie the paths of the sun, moon and planets. . . . Circling around this field of blue and gold are the four and twenty hours in joyous or somber flight, . . . revealing roseate flesh tints through gauzy draperies of pale blue, or shivering in black robes with averted faces where the shadows of night are deepening."

The illustrations we publish of three other decorations of the Pennsylvania State House indicate that Abbey has improved upon his Holy Grail pictures. There seems to be nowhere that unhappy combination of flat Byzantine patterns with realistic rendering—a fatal mistake,—all seems logically realistic in rendering. The symbolism is skilfully united with the anecdotal. In the "Spirit of Vulcan," where the nude backs of the workmen recall Velasquez's "Forge of Vulcan," there is the same preponderance of realism that there is in that famous Spanish masterpiece.

"The Spirit of Light" with its nude figures shows a decided departure for Abbey; but the forceful forward movement of the figures, and the significant oil wells, their interlacing silhouettes making distinct patterns in the background, are characteristic of his happy faculty for composition.

Less characteristic, perhaps, is "Science Revealing the Treasures of the Earth"; the allegory is less striking, and the many upright lines are hardly happy, maybe in color they are less pronounced.

A fourth lunette is entitled "The Spirit of Religious Liberty"—three allegorical female figures flying before a fleet of old-time ships.



THE BROTHERS MANNESMANN, OWNERS OF "IMPORTANT GERMAN INTERESTS" IN MOROCCO

(The German firm that was mainly concerned in the Agadir incident is that of the well-known Gebrüder Mannesmann, steel and iron manufacturers, of Remscheid, in Westphalia, a remarkable combination of brothers, each of whom is an expert in some special branch of the business. The five brothers are types of the German business men whose energy and pushfulness have done so much to develop their country as a world power. One of the brothers, Reinhard, is an expert in mines, and it was he who obtained from the Sultan Abdul Aziz of Morocco the mining concessions which formed the chief basis of Germany's claim to protect her interests in Morocco)

FRENCHMAN AND GERMAN IN AFRICA

BY EDGAR ALLEN FORBES

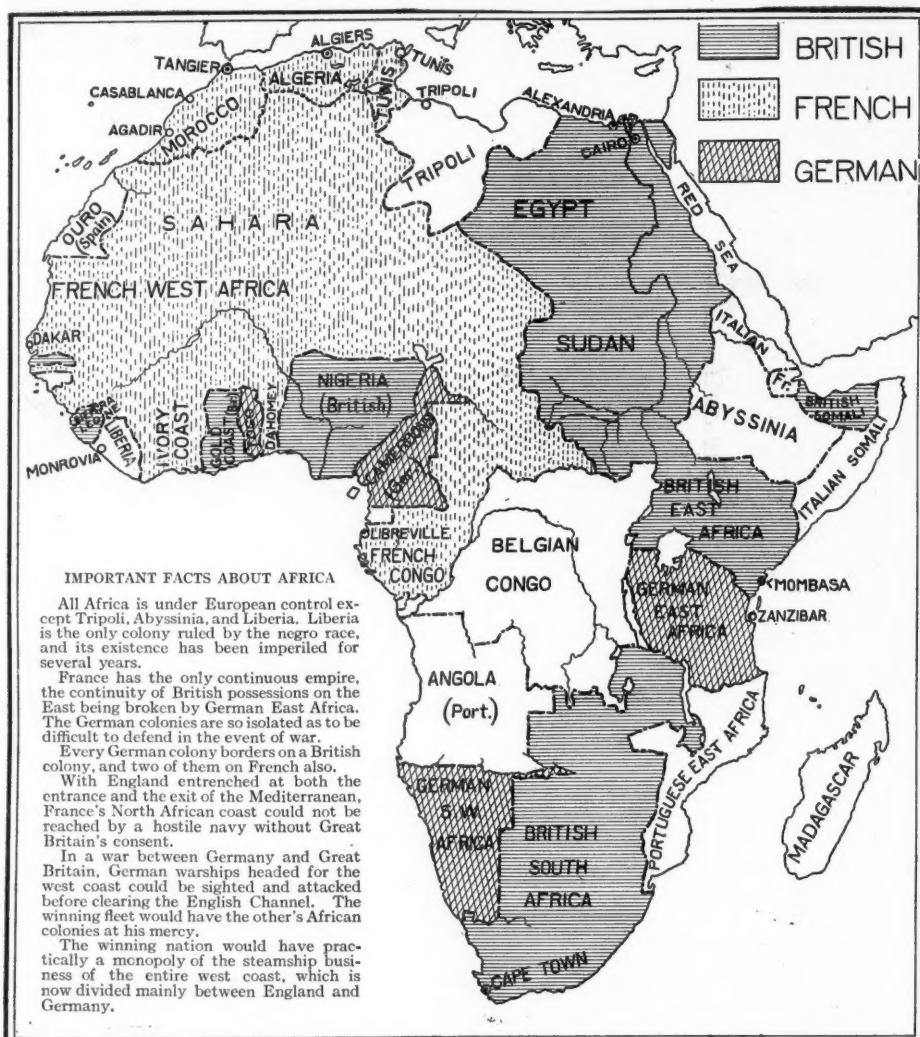
(Author of "The Land of the White Helmet")

I. FRANCE AND HER AFRICAN DOMINIONS

NEARLY everything in Africa is to-day mainly for the reason that Americans read English and the English do not use much ink England, France and Germany. Great in the glorification of French colonization. Britain and France together control about two-thirds of the continent, the British third being by far the more important. Germany owns only a small part of the remaining third, but its steamship and trading interests entitle it to a voice in all African councils.

Very few Americans realize the vastness of the French empire in the Dark Continent—

Here are some geographical facts that will give an imperfect conception of the area covered by the Tricolor in Africa. The traveler who starts southward from Algiers and travels in a straight line until he reaches the limit of French territory will cover a distance equal to that between New York City and Santa Fé, New Mexico. If



he should start from Dakar, on the west coast, and go eastward until he reaches the Anglo-French boundary, he would go as far as from Pittsburgh to San Francisco. Diagonally from Tangier to the southeastern corner of the French domain, the distance is equal to that from New York City to Portland, Oregon.

Divide this great composite area up into its component parts and fit them into a map of the United States and we have something like this: Tunis covers North Carolina. Algeria blots out the States of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Kentucky. Morocco is as large as Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia and Florida combined. French West Africa includes enough

real estate to make twenty-five States like Kentucky. French Guinea is as big as Oregon and the Ivory Coast colony is twice the size of Michigan. Into the small colony of Dahomey could be placed six New Hampshires. The French Congo covers the big State of Illinois eight times. And we have left the Great Desert and its nomad peoples; the Sahara alone is nearly as large as the whole of the United States. If we count in the little French colony isolated on the Red Sea and add the French island of Madagascar, we have something like 38,000,000 Africans who are citizens or subjects of France. About 30,000,000 of these are Mohammedans.

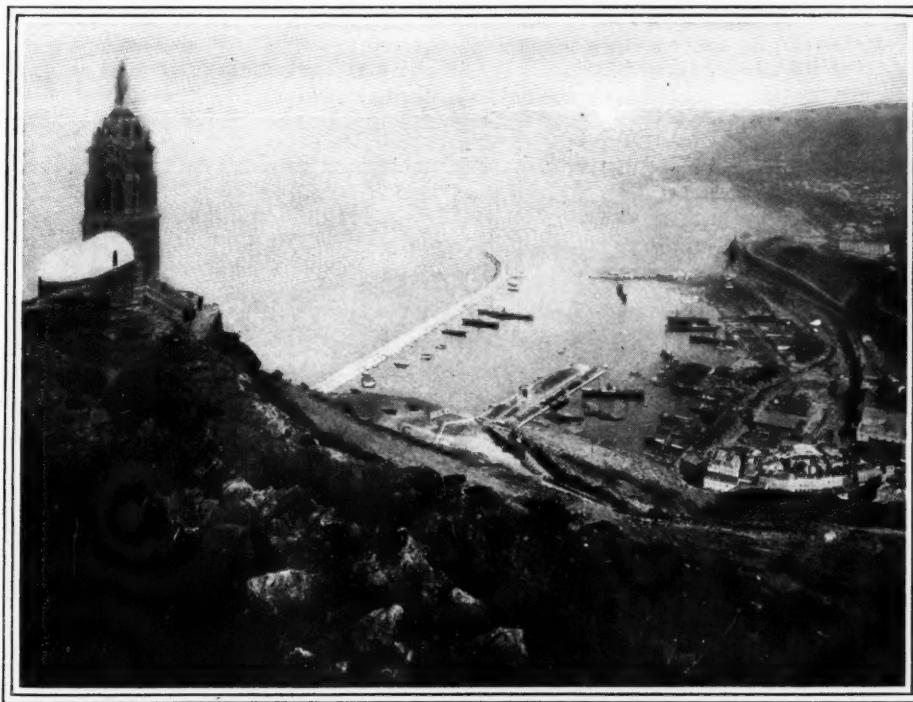
A glance at the map will show one of the most significant facts about this domain—it is practically all in one piece. It is the only continuous empire in Africa and it fronts on the sea everywhere except on the east.

Of course, this general description considers Morocco as an integral part of France's African possessions. Nominally the Moorish Empire is independent, and the nations of Europe have in solemn conclave declared that its sovereignty shall be maintained. At the same time, everybody concerned knows that Morocco is French just as certainly as the Turkish khedivate of Egypt is British. France wants Morocco to round out its empire. Great Britain has made an agreement whereby France is to have it. Germany is the one disturbing factor, but Germany has openly announced her willingness to get out of the way if France will pay for the withdrawal. The Spanish claims (including part possession) are weak—because they are not backed up by big guns. Morocco itself is not supposed to have anything to say on the subject. As for the rest of the world, if may rest assured that no better fortune can come to Morocco than to find itself speedily taken

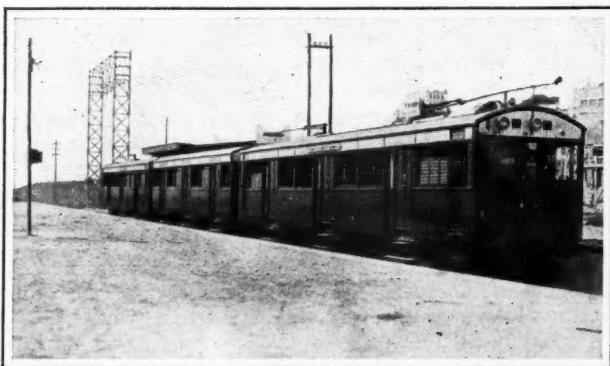
over by France. As an independent nation it is utterly hopeless and can only go from worse to worse. Since its population is fanatically Mohammedan, Morocco may well bow its face toward Mecca and petition Allah that it may be given over to a considerate nation like France, that has shown a wonderful capacity for fitting European government about the necks of Moslems.

The writer has been in nearly all of the French African colonies and makes no concealment of his admiration for the colonial administrations that he has witnessed. He went as an inconspicuous American, with no advance notices and under no obligations to any French official for courtesies. After wandering around for a year in many African colonies he came away with the firm conviction that the Frenchman is the most enthusiastic, the most discreet, and the kindest of the African overlords—and withal the finest "builder" in the Dark Continent. And he is not alone in this conviction.

Take the material side first, since the world insists upon gauging the progress of civilization by counting up expenditures for public works. No other nation has so many fine harbors in Africa. You expect these along



THE HARBOR OF ORAN, ALGERIA, ILLUSTRATING THE FRENCH HABIT OF PROVIDING A SAFE ANCHOR FOR VESSELS AND AMPLE DOCKING FACILITIES

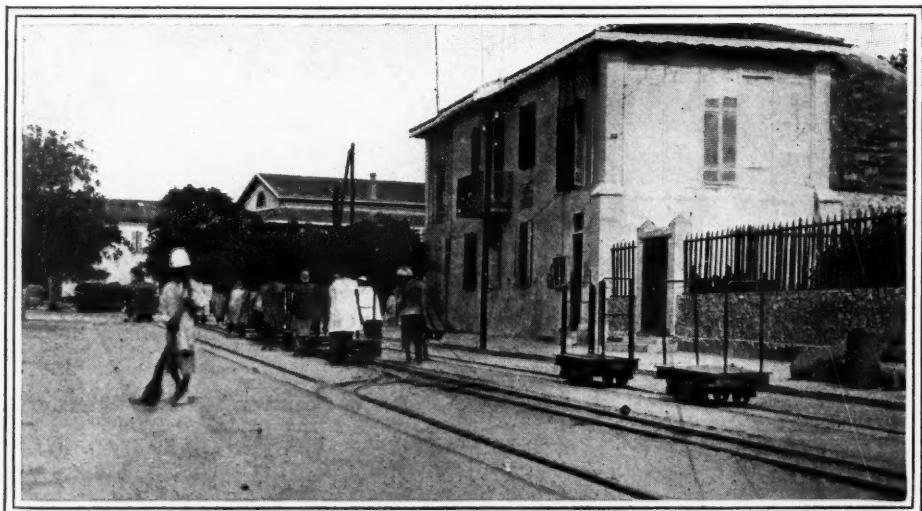


"ALL ABOARD FOR CARTHAGE!"

(The electric train that runs from Tunis to the ancient site of Carthage. The train is standing in front of the Carthage station)

the Mediterranean, of course, but not along running up to the western coast, which is pounded by a tremendous surf from Tangier to the Cape. The writer caught his first glimpse of Casablanca just after the French army of occupation had landed—and there was the beginning of a huge breakwater that would cost millions. He went into the harbor of Dakar (French West Africa) on a heavy cargo-boat—and there were docks that would be a credit to New York City. The big boat ran alongside the pier under its own steam and unloaded its freight on a capacious wharf that was provided with a branch railroad to connect with the main line. This is the

mouth of the Senegal River, where the steamer makes connection and carries freight and passengers to the head of navigation on the Senegal. There another railroad picks them up and carries them across to navigable water on the upper Niger and turns them over to steamers that run to Timbuctu. And at Casablanca, in the land of no railroads, the first thing that he clambered over when he stepped from the surf-boat was an embankment with steel rails on top—the beginning of a French military railroad. Massive bridges, macadamized highways, telephones, fine public buildings, electric railways—you meet them



A STREET SCENE IN RUFISQUE, FRENCH WEST AFRICA

(The narrow-gaged tracks run from the dock to all of the principal stores and warehouses; cargo unloaded from a vessel is quickly transferred to its destination)



THE "WHITE CITY" OF ALGIERS

(This view from an incoming steamer is more attractive than that from Kasbah on the hilltop)

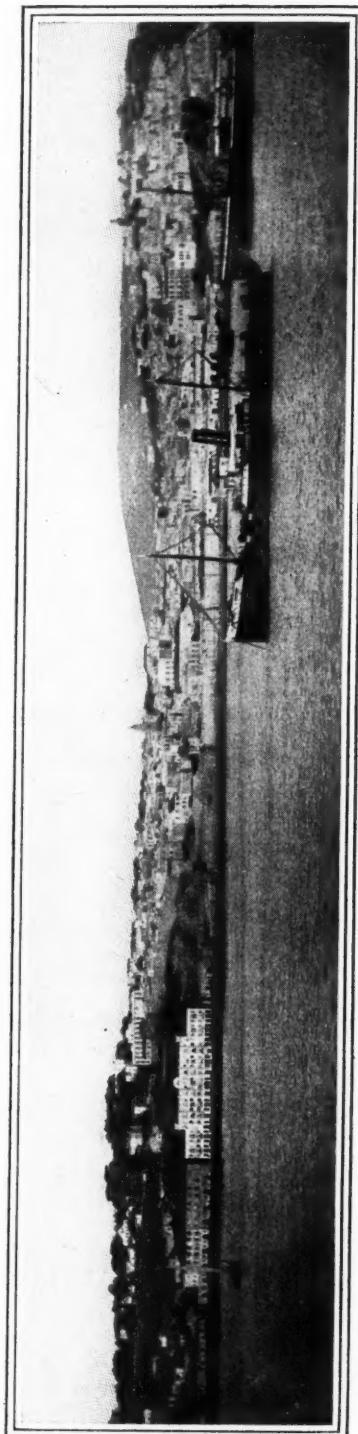
nearly everywhere you travel about in fatal droughts by the French well-diggers. France's African empire.

Caravan routes were being marked out and

Even in the upper edge of the Sahara he mapped, with every well in the entire Sa- observed the same restless, enthusiastic activ- hara carefully located and deepened, making ity. One by one the existing oases are being chains of stepping-stones across the blis- watered by artesian well, and their area tering zone. The marauding Tuaregs on the of productivity extended. Oases cities with south and the roving bandits along the millions of date-palms are being saved from Moroccan border are being chased away



A BOULEVARD IN THE ALGERIAN CITY OF ORAN, NEAR THE MOROCCAN BORDER



TANGIER, MOROCCO, WHICH IS NOTHING LIKE SO MODERN AS A DISTANT VIEW INDICATES

(Tangier, which was, for centuries, the only Moroccan town known to Europe, is the chief commercial center of the country and its diplomatic headquarters. It has a population of about 35,000, a large portion of whom are engaged in making the celebrated Morocco leather)

from their ancient lairs by Arab cavalrymen in French uniform. It is really a spectacle that makes one feel that the genius of the Frenchman has been only imperfectly understood by the world.

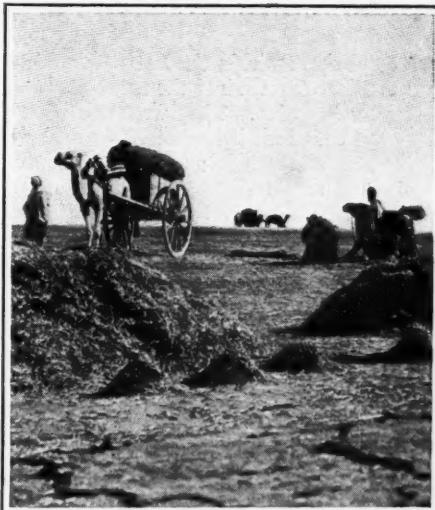
Personally, the writer looks for schools when he goes a-hunting for civilization—not institutions of higher learning, but plain schools for everybody. If there be a nation in Africa that has gone into the school-teacher business so extensively as the French, let somebody else name it. In Tunis, for example, which is one of the younger French colonies, he found so many schools that he could not even classify them,—schools for French, for Italians, for Jews, for Arabs; schools for Arabs to learn French and others for French to learn Arabic; agricultural schools, theological schools, normal schools to train native teachers. And what France has done for the Arab she is doing on a different scale for the black-skinned protégés of the west coast and of the vast interior. Here is a nation that believes in civilization through the schoolhouse and that does not wait for the missionaries to educate her subjects.

A policy of conciliation marks the French official in all parts of this African empire. During all the time that the writer was in Africa he never saw a Frenchman in uniform act or speak arrogantly toward a native. The Arab and the French negro seemed to be on an equal footing with the white man so far as public institutions and conveniences were concerned. The religion of the Mohammedan received a hard blow when the Frenchman came, of course, but he quickly learned that the invader would not tread roughly upon his prejudices. The privacy of his mosques was safeguarded; the tombs of his holy men were whitewashed, instead of being desecrated; his priests, by whatever name called, were utilized as local magistrates and allowed to administer justice in the old way, except in the case of grave misdemeanors. The Arab soon discovered that he could even put on the white man's uniform without racial or religious dishonor—and nearly all of French Africa is to-day guarded by brown and black-skinned men with French officers. The very fact that France entrusts her empire to the arms of the conquered races is very strong evidence that she has learned how to administer government in a land of strange prejudices.

The story of Morocco will be the same as the story of other French possessions. France gets her colonies by methods that most of us must unqualifiedly condemn, just as we

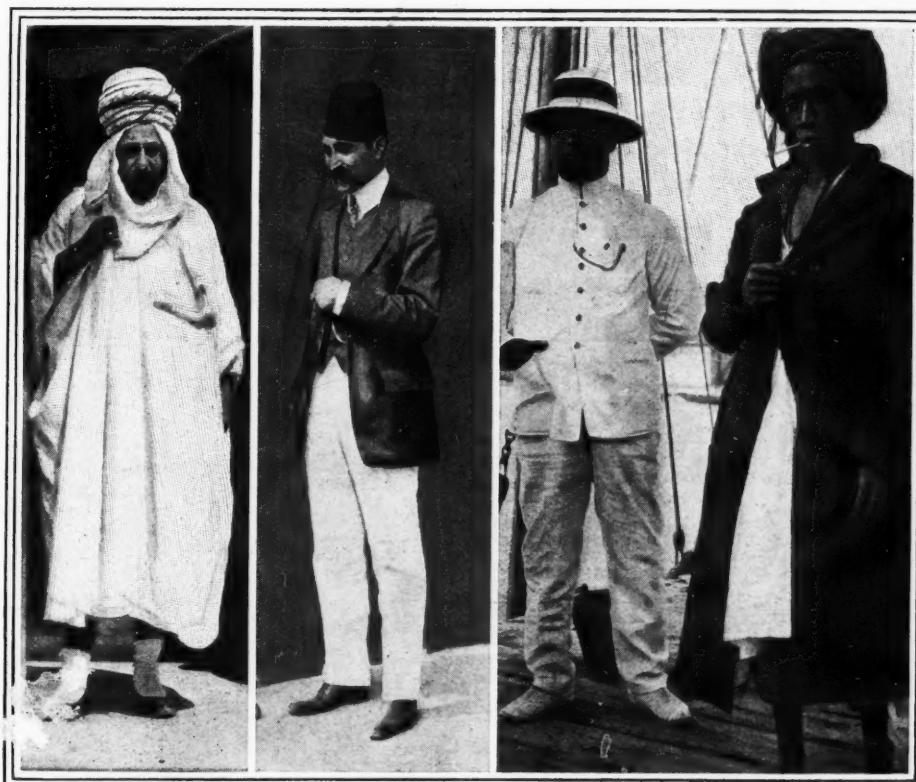
must condemn the means whereby the majority of the British colonies were acquired. Then comes the inconsistency. Having acquired a colony by fair means or foul, France immediately sets to work to administer it in such a way that the suspicion and the dislike of its natives are quickly and permanently removed. The Frenchman expects to make his colonies pay, but he does not expect them to pay in the beginning. Instead of raising moneys for vast railroad and harbor projects by squeezing the colonies, the money is raised in France and the projects quickly executed. He has confidence in the future and therefore builds immeasurably faster than a nation that takes no chances on what to-morrow may bring forth.

Enthusiasm and optimism, therefore, are the distinguishing characteristics of the Frenchman as the writer of these lines observed him in Africa. The average official is of fine fiber and executive ability—but that is true of most of the white men in that blistering land. No other type of man can “swing the job.”



THE CAMEL IN HARNESS

(An idea that the Arab never obtained from the Koran, but which he is seeing worked out successfully in an increasing number of sections of North Africa by the French)



ALGERIAN LAWYER

TUNISIAN EDITOR

FOUR TYPES OF FRENCH AFRICANS

SENEGAL MERCHANT AND MOHAMMEDAN GENTLEMAN

II. GERMANY—THE THIRD POWER IN AFRICA

THREE times within the last six years we have been thrown into the fever of a war-scare over Morocco. That wretched corner of the hot continent is like an exposed nerve or an inflamed tonsil in its capacity for producing systematic disturbances out of all proportion to the amount of area involved. In each case it has been the German who pounded on the war-drum.

Up to the year 1904 the European executors of Africa would have smiled to hear any one seriously mention Germany as an African power. In that year, for instance, England and France sat down together and executed a "Know All Men By These Presents" to the effect that henceforth Egypt should be a British "sphere of influence" and in return for the aloofness of France along the Nile, Morocco should be a French "sphere of influence." It was quite natural that the Khedive of Egypt and the Sultan of Morocco should have been overlooked in the transaction, but the two nations made a fatal mistake in neglecting to invite to their conference a highly respected member of the Hohenzollern family. Morocco was encouraged to make a written appeal to Germany for help and the Kaiser himself came over to Tangier. The result was the Algeciras Conference guaranteeing Moroccan sovereignty. Germany had blocked the game—and a nation that can do that is an African power.

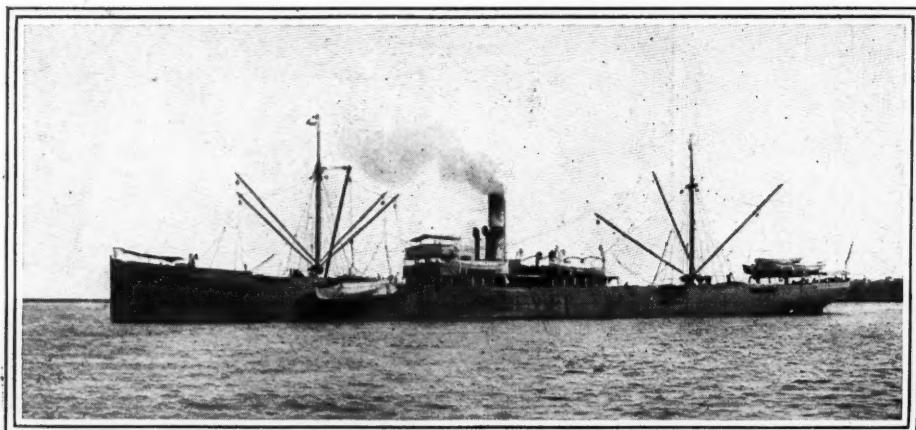
In 1908 came the second incident. In the French army at Casablanca was the Foreign Legion, a detachment of gentlemen-adventurers—and adventurers who are not gentle-

men—from all the countries of Europe. Three Germans deserted the colors and took refuge in the German consulate. Their officers promptly arrested them and returned them to camp. Immediately the war-drum was heard all along the Rhine and for months there was serious danger of war. It was finally averted by certain trade concessions which France made to Germany.

And now has come the third incident. A German war-boat anchors at the southwest corner of Morocco and offers to leave provided France will cede to Germany 350 miles of coast just north of the mouth of the Congo, and along with it the port of Libreville, which is France's exit to the sea in that part of Africa.

With these three incidents fresh in mind, surely there is no fledgling diplomat in Europe who will again make the mistake of ignoring Germany as an African Power with a big P.

And yet Germany owns but a very small part of Africa, in comparison with the vast estates of Great Britain and France. The Kaiser has three isolated colonies on the west coast and one on the east coast—none of which is of great intrinsic value and only one has exceptional strategic value. Hamburg traders have been on the Guinea coast for centuries and German explorers have gone nearly all over the continent, yet it was not until 1883 that their flag went up over the first German colony in Africa. Previous to that time the biggest German known to the African was the red-faced captain of some rusty cargo-boat. It is quite otherwise now.

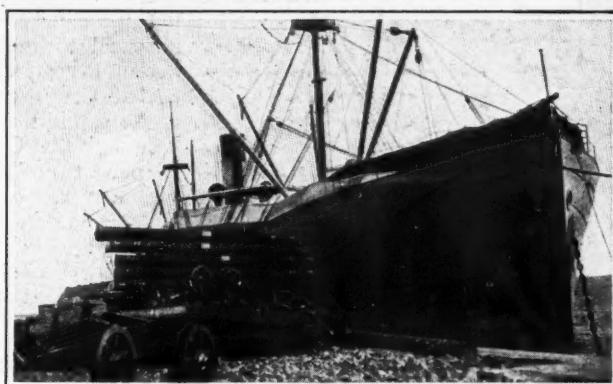


THE BIGGEST GERMAN CALLING IN AFRICA

(A Hamburg cargo boat loaded down with merchandise destined to points from Dakar to German Southwest Africa)

No student who follows the white man step by step in his exploration and conquest of the Dark Continent can fail to be impressed with one remarkable fact—that the German has the clearest title and the cleanest hands of all the overlords of Africa. His invasion has been marked by the most astute diplomacy but his bitterest foe can hardly claim that he has not played the game fairly. It is also an interesting fact that it is the Englishman (who most of all regrets the German's presence in Africa) who is responsible for encouraging him to enter into the scramble. The story of all four colonies can be outlined in a few brief sentences.

(1) In 1880 an appeal for protection against hostile natives came from some German missionaries who had been established for twenty years in an unmapped region in southwest Africa, within the British "sphere of influence." The British Government, speaking with the voice of Lord Beaconsfield and later of Mr. Gladstone, declined to intervene on the ground that the missionaries were not within the limits of British territory. A long diplomatic correspondence resulted in the German flag being raised over what is to-day known as German Southwest Africa. Then a British warship was sent to protest, but it was too late. The correspondence gave the Germans a clear title.



A GERMAN CARGO BOAT UNLOADING A RAILROAD AT DAKAR,
FRENCH WEST AFRICA

(This is by far the finest harbor on the entire west coast of Africa, for Sierra Leone has the only natural harbor between Tangier and Cape Town)

(2) In the very center of the Guinea Coast, between French Dahomey and the British colony called Gold Coast, is the tiny German colony of Togoland. The Germans had some claims on this that dated back to the pioneer trading days, but the protectorate was really established by virtue of treaties which the explorer Nachtigal made with the native chiefs. It is true that Nachtigal did not make it perfectly clear to the British Government what he was about to do, but it would be stretching the facts to call his action underhanded.

(3) It is to the intrepid Nachtigal also that Germany owes the far more important colony of the Cameroons. The British Government had been duly notified that the explorer was active in that region but His

Majesty's consul allowed himself to be caught asleep. The old Cameroons chief whose signature to the treaty made his country a German colony was himself something of a diplomat. Knowing that the British consul was on the way and that he would probably try to outbid Nachtigal, the wily old African held off for a week before he would sign. Scarcely had Nachtigal forced him into action when His Britannic Majesty's consul arrived, only to find a weather-beaten explorer complacently smoking his big pipe under the shadow of the Hamburg American



A TYPE OF TRADING STATION ON AN AFRICAN RIVER

(The carrying trade of these "factories" is rapidly being won by the German cargo boats)



YOUNG ARAB GIRLS OF THE PEASANT CLASS

flag. Great Britain had been too slow—that was all.

(4) The next year (1885) the German outwitted the Briton again, on the east coast this time. East of Lake Tanganika, between British and Portuguese East Africa, lies the big colony of German East Africa. This also was acquired cleverly but legally through treaties with native chiefs. Three Germans who were supposed to be mechanics landed and appeared to be unwelcome guests at the German consulate. Nobody kept track of them as they wandered about and then trailed off into the interior—but when they trailed back to the coast they had the documents that enabled Germany to raise its flag over a region that makes it apparently impossible for England to realize its dream of an unbroken stretch of empire from Cairo to Cape Town, with a railroad running entirely across Africa. That railroad could be carried on British soil from Khartoum through the Sudan nearly to Tanganika; and it has already been brought northward through British territory nearly to the southern end of the lake. The ever-present reflection that it was the German who shattered this rosy dream is one of several reasons why England and Germany do not love each other as deeply as the peace advocates desire. Incidentally, these two disconnected ends of railroad pointing toward each other across an irremovable barrier throw light upon another

African puzzle—Great Britain's sustained appeal to the nations for intervention in the Belgian Congo. A redistribution of that Congo country would have filled in the gap in the British empire and also connected the Cape to Cairo Railroad. Of course the railroad will go through whenever it becomes a commercial necessity, but something must happen in Africa before it can become a military road controlled from end to end by one nation.

The extent of these German colonies may be expressed in familiar terms as follows: Togo is about two-thirds as large as the State of New York and has a population about two-thirds as large as that of Philadelphia, with 372 white residents. The Cameroons would make three States like New York, and the population is one and a half times that of Chicago, with 1284 whites. German Southwest Africa would make six and a half States the size of New York, yet it is credited with a native population scarcely larger than that of Nashville or Omaha. It has a European population of about 13,000, however, mainly Germans. German East Africa is seven and a half times the size of New York State and has a mixed population twice that of New York City. It also has the second largest European population—3756.

After you have added up every square mile of German territory in Africa and computed both its actual and its potential value, the greatest single item is yet to be added—the German cargo-boat along the African coast. It is the Hamburg sea-captain and not the colonial official who makes the Kaiser to-day



A GROUP OF STREET ARABS IN NORTH AFRICA

one of the three great overlords of the Dark Continent. Go where you will up and down the coast, on either side, and you will not be long in any port before you see the Hamburg flag at the stern of a heavily laden steamer. In the most unexpected places along that "rottest coast in the world" you will find a German "factory" stocked with "made-in-Germany" merchandise and exchanging it for palm-oil and other products of the African bush. These trading stations do sufficient business to give every outward and homeward-bound freighter the nucleus of a cargo, and a nucleus is all that the captain wants. The German has already learned how to take the sea-trade away from the captain of every other nation that sails those dangerous seas.

For a thousand miles up and down that coast the writer has watched the contest of the cargo-boats, from their decks and from the shore. Far away on the horizon appears a Hamburg steamer inward-bound. By the time its anchor drops off-shore, you see that the cargo for that port has all been hoisted on deck and the launch and surf-boats are swinging over the sides. Almost by the time the anchor hits the bottom the surf-boats are in the water and the steam winches are lowering the cargo. In a very short space of time the launch is towing a string of them to the landing, where the company's agent has made all arrangements for



THE CHIEF OF ALL THE ARABS OF ALGERIA
(The most important native chief in French Africa)

speedy unloading. The steamship captain is not much in evidence during this operation; the junior officers engineer the handling of the cargo. But if you go into the captain's cabin you will probably see him entertaining the managers of the trading houses at that port, telling them the news at home, "jollying" them in the jovial German fashion—and incidentally telling them when he will come along to pick up cargo for Hamburg. And the system works like a charm. Again and again I have seen a Hamburger creeping slowly homeward with his vessel so weighted down with palm-oil that it looked in the distance almost like a submarine, while ahead had gone a Liverpool steamer almost in ballast. The captains of these boats get a commission on the homeward cargo and the



ON A GERMAN RAILROAD IN EAST AFRICA

(Dark travelers in an open wagon of the German East-African Usambara line buying fruit from peddlers at one of the stations)

German's sociability wins for him the lion's share of the spoil. Many a British "factory" will let an Elder-Dempster boat go by and hold his hogshead of palm-oil for the German. Service and sociability—this is the secret of the German conquest of the West African seas. Once the Liverpool flag monopolized the carrying trade. Now, on the high seas, you will see one flag quite as frequently as the other; but if you go into some independent port like Monrovia, you will be almost certain to see two German flags to one Union Jack.

This is the big reason why Berlin is so keenly interested in Africa, and why it kicks up a row every little while about Morocco. Germany does not want Morocco, nor does she expect to get it. Possibly a coaling-station might be acceptable, but that is a small matter. It is the trade of Africa that Germany wants, and she is getting it in every port where she has anything like an equal chance. Why is it that Germany—and not the United States—which is the real hope of the American colony of Liberia in its present effort to avoid being gobbled up by Great Britain or France? Simply because the trade of Liberia is worth having, and Germany has the best part of it already. For this reason the Hamburg house of Woermann stands close to the Government and tides it over in many emergencies—and the German consul lines

whenever a grave crisis appears.

The German does not have much of a showing in a French port, hence, the fewer French ports in Africa the better the German is pleased. It would be a decided commercial gain to have Libreville, on the Equator. Incidentally, the cession of the coast of the French Congo would double the area of the Cameroons and bring that colony 350 miles nearer to German Southwest Africa. Between would lie only the Portuguese colony of Angola. Everybody knows that Portugal has troubles at home nowadays and would be helpless if provoked into an African embroilment with Germany. It would be very easy to provide a boundary dispute or imagine the need of protection for some German trader or miner in Portuguese territory—to be ended by annexing Angola and thus linking up the main German colonies on the West Coast. But suppose England should interfere just as Germany has interfered with the French plans in Morocco? Very well; just across the continent is Portuguese East Africa—bordering on a British colony. Possibly an agreement might be reached whereby Germany would keep her hands off if something should happen over there that would lead to the absorption of Portuguese East Africa by British South Africa. Neither nation is above a transaction of this kind, and



THE BRASS BAND OF THE PUPILS OF THE GERMAN SCHOOL AT TONGA, EAST AFRICA

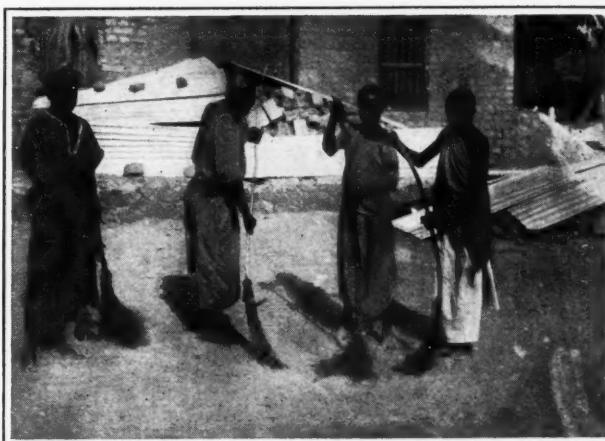
who would dare to say them nay if they should get together on it. But whether the German diplomatic mind runs in this direction or another, the gain of Libreville would be a great advantage to German sea-trade. It would no longer be profitable for a Marseilles freighter to steam farther southward than the Gulf of Guinea—and the German would have a monopoly of at least half of the west coast.

But it is this all-important sea-trade that will make Germany hesitate longest before plunging into a war with England. Unless the British navy could be quickly and completely crushed, the Hamburg freighters would be driven from those seas at once. It would take many navies to properly guard that surf-ridden coast-line. And where would fleets of warships coal if they were to remain indefinitely on outpost duty?

At the close of any war between England and Germany, with or without France, the map-makers would be required to recolor the map of Africa. Whichever nation might win at sea would have the other's colonies at its mercy. With the loss of colonies goes prestige and trade. That the Kaiser is keenly interested may well be believed, for

he is reported to be one of the largest stock-holders in the German merchant marine.

The world at large need not be apprehensive at the prospect of Germany playing a freer hand in African politics. Two-score years and more have removed most of the skepticism about the German's adaptability for colonization. Perhaps he is less imperial in his upbuilding when compared with the French, but the isolation of his colonies forbids vast railroad projects and ocean-to-ocean telegraph lines. In his attitude toward the African native and his methods of fitting him for enlarged opportunities, the German



THE STREET-CLEANING DEPARTMENT OF A GERMAN EAST
AFRICAN TOWN AT WORK



DRILLING NATIVE SOLDIERS IN GERMAN EAST AFRICA

deserves the commendation of all good men. A large part of Africa must forever remain uninhabitable for any large white population and its destiny rests in the hands of the native. Without the blowing of horns and the noise of the press-agent, the German is training the young African in his own way—and making a pretty good job of it.

The writer has watched the German closely in his relations to these half-wild protégés on the west coast. The administration of government there is largely a matter of temperament and the men from the Rhine country are probably less easily driven into irritability than any other white men. There have been occasional charges of cruelty and oppression, it is true, but the Germans themselves have been quickest to call the responsible officials to account. Besides, we should

remember that the administrative job in Africa is one of the hardest in the world. The heat and the rains, the isolation and privations of the white man's life, and the debility that comes from frequent fevers drive the amiability from most men who work within the equatorial belt. Moreover, the official is expected to work miracles with a primitive and sluggish people—and the African is at times the laziest, the stubbornest, and the stupidest creature ever fashioned in the form of man.

After observing the white men of many nations at the task of regenerating Africa, one cannot escape a conviction that the German native will rise as high in the scale, if not higher, than any other within the same belt. At the same time, were the present writer an African he should prefer to live under the French flag.



A MISSION SCHOOL IN WILHELMSTHAL, GERMAN EAST AFRICA

(Singing lesson conducted by the minister who is seen on the right)



BEURDELEY BEHRENS
(France) (Great Britain)

YOUNG	DARLEY	POLACCHI	KELTIE	JOHNSTON
(Canada)	(Austria)	MARKOFF (France)	(Great Britain)	(Great Britain)
KÜBEL	PARTSCH	BRÜCKNER (Russia)	LOCZY WILCKENS	TETTAU
(United States)	(Saxony)	(Austria)	(Hungary)	(Germany)
CAPUTO	LALLEMAND	VON HARDENTHURM	GRANT	PENCK
(Italy)	(France)	(Austria)	(Great Britain)	(Germany)
				WILLIS CUBILLO
				(United States) (Spain)

THE WORLD'S LEADING GEOGRAPHERS—DELEGATES TO THE LONDON CONFERENCE OF NOVEMBER, 1909, WHICH ADOPTED THE SPECIFICATIONS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL STANDARD MAP

MAPPING THE WORLD ON A STANDARD SCALE

BY HERBERT T. WADE

So much of our knowledge of the geography of the world is acquired from maps that it is quite natural to take these representations of the surface of the earth for granted without considering either their full significance or the method of their preparation. Yet so important is the matter that recently the leading nations have united to construct a standard international map of the world, the various sheets of which, prepared to the same scale, shall be uniform in the method of representation, delineation, and symbols.

The matter of scale was the first important consideration, and it will be recalled at once

from our school days, if not from our daily experience, that comparatively few of the maps of the atlases are drawn to the same scale. As a result it is indeed rare for people to have a clear idea of the relative extent of territory of different states and nations, particularly those situated on different continents. Even different States of the United States are not thought of with their proper comparative areas, except by those specially informed or trained. This is because the page of the atlas or school geography is taken as a standard, and the individual map is reproduced to fill it irrespective of scale, with the aim of showing as much detail as possible.

For this reason few people in the Eastern States realize that Colorado, with its area of 103,925 square miles, is seven times the extent of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, which together include 14,555 square miles. And going outside the national domain, yet not into unfamiliar fields, how many, either school children or adults, realize that France is of smaller area than the State of Texas?

Furthermore, not only is this matter of scale important, but there is the added question of collecting all the available geographical knowledge of the world on a single uniform set of maps.

THE NEED OF A STANDARD MAP

It is, of course, obvious that our knowledge of the earth's surface as expressed on maps must vary greatly in different regions, so that in assembling this material into one standard map it is found that while there may be complete and minute data for one continent, there may be practically nothing for another. Thus there are parts of the world that are adequately surveyed, for instance all of Europe except the Balkan Peninsula, where centuries of military operations have required and led to the construction of maps so thorough that often there is a wealth of detail in excess of that needed for ordinary scientific or commercial purposes.

The same condition holds good, though to a less extent, for about two-thirds of the United States, where the progress of civilization, the opening of new country to settlement, and a rapid economic development have produced a similar condition for much of its area. But there are other parts of America and fairly extensive areas of Africa, Asia, and South America, where there are more or less accurate maps that show merely the distribution of streams and the location of the principal places, but give no information as to altitudes and land forms. Finally there are those remaining regions of which our knowledge ranges from a mere guess to some other degree of inadequacy.

Such being the condition of geographical knowledge, it was not strange that a proposition for a standard international map of the world should be brought before various geographical congresses as early as 1891, but it was not finally decided upon until the autumn of 1909 at an international conference called by the British Government. Austria, France, Great Britain, Hungary, Italy, Russia, Spain, and the United States formally participated,

while Australia, Canada, and Saxony were represented. Formal resolutions and a detailed plan were adopted; France, Germany, Great Britain, and Russia agreed to prepare the map for Europe, Africa, Asia, and Australia, while Canada and the United States became responsible for their territory, leaving but Central and South America unprovided for.

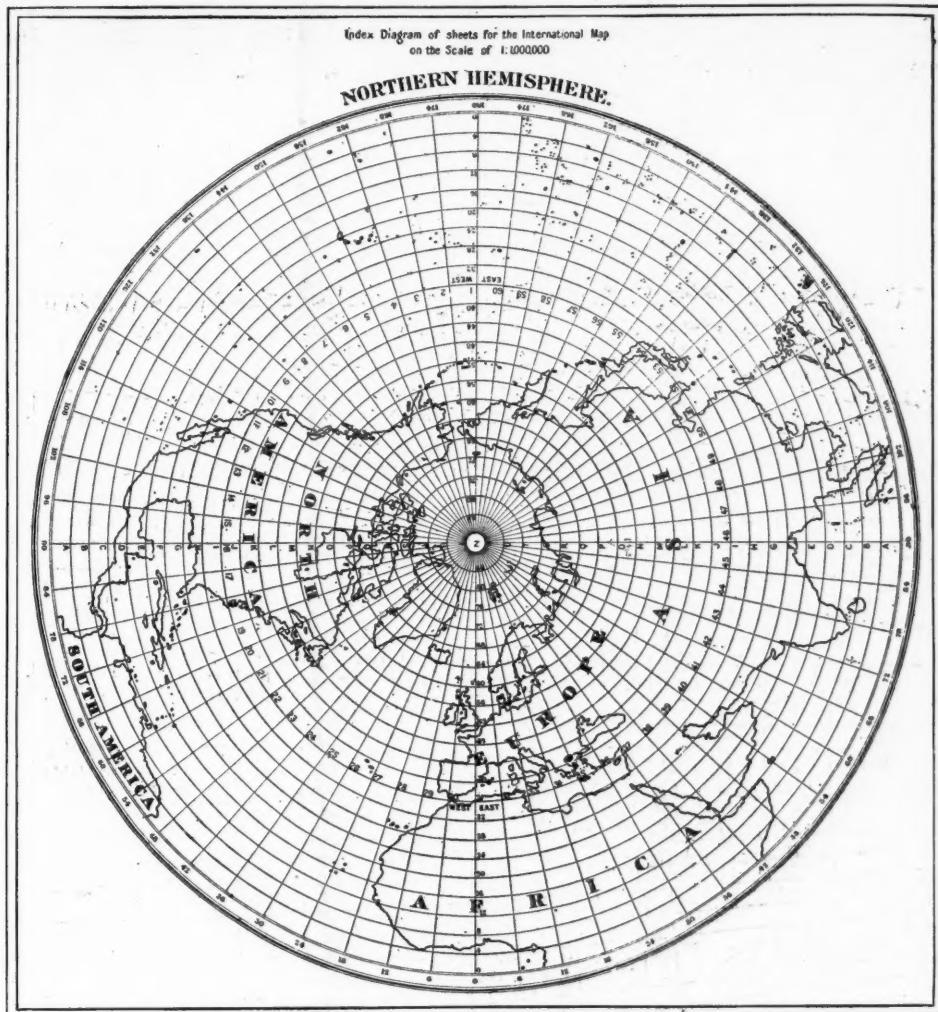
A second congress will be held in Rome, Italy, in October and will be attended by R. B. Marshall, Chief Geographer of the United States Geological Survey as representative of that organization and the American Government.

Bailey Willis, Geologist of the United States Geological Survey, and S. S. Kübel, the Chief Engraver of that organization, were the delegates of the United States to the conference of 1909. Mr. Willis, soon after his return to America, undertook with the authority of the American Government a mission to South America and secured the much-desired coöperation of several of the most important countries.

Thus auspiciously inaugurated, work was straightway begun on this new standard international map and it is now progressing actively. For the well-known and adequately surveyed area, as in Europe, where all data are available, it is only a question of putting to work draftsmen and engravers, directing them to carry out the spirit of the joint resolutions making new plates from old material. In Europe the actual publication can be arranged with competent map-publishing houses, but the United States Government did not deem it advisable to put its material and data at the disposal of European firms, and consequently it is being compiled for publication by the Geological Survey in accordance with its fixed policy of low costs and official publication. With a number of these maps in actual process of preparation it is of interest to consider some of their chief features.

THE ONE-MILLIONTH MAP

The scale selected for the new International Map is quite large, one to a million, or in other words one inch on the map would correspond to nearly sixteen miles on the earth's surface. This is sufficiently large to enable the villages as well as the cities to be shown, and also the railways, principal roads, important water courses, the general form of the hills and mountains and the beds of the oceans and great lakes. That this size will prove useful for all purposes, commercial as



INDEX DIAGRAM OF SHEETS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL MAP

(A similar diagram is used for the Southern Hemisphere)

well as political and scientific, will appear when we consider the map as a whole and also the individual sheets. Each of these will measure about 25 x 20 inches and will comprise six degrees of longitude and four degrees of latitude, or an area somewhat smaller than that of the State of Wyoming.

Consequently there will be required to cover the entire surface of the earth 2640 sheets, each of which will bear an international number and letter, as shown on the accompanying map of one of the hemispheres. The letters are arranged north and south from the Equator, each sheet being designated in latitude by a letter and in longitude by a number,

as North B 12. The lettering begins at the Equator with A preceded by North or South and extends to V, with the polar areas designated by Z. Just as the initial parallel is the Equator, so the initial meridian is the antemeridian of Greenwich, 180° East or West, this line passing through the Pacific Ocean.

The sectors are numbered from 1 to 60, increasing in an easterly direction. It may be remarked in passing that the selection of Greenwich as the primary meridian is a striking evidence of the progress in scientific work made possible by international co-operation, for the French geographers with most commendable spirit expressed their willingness to



INTERNATIONAL MAP OF THE WORLD—ARRANGEMENT OF ATLAS SHEETS FOR THE UNITED STATES



Photograph by Bachrach, Washington

ACHESON F. HASSAN
(Cartographer)

GEORGE OTIS SMITH
(Director)

ROBERT BRADFORD MARSHALL
(Chief Geographer)

OFFICIALS OF THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY ACTIVE IN COMPILING THE AMERICAN STANDARD MAP

abandon Paris as a primary meridian to accept that of their British neighbors. And the same subordination of national pride to scientific progress and international comity led the French Republic but a few months ago to adopt international standard time with the meridian of Greenwich as a starting point. It would seem most appropriate, therefore, that a corresponding liberality should be manifested by the Anglo-Saxon nations in adopting the international metric system of weights and measures which had its origin and development in France.

The map sheets described will not number 2640, as about three-fourths of the earth's surface is ocean, the mapping of which is unnecessary for the present purpose, so that to include even the Oceanic islands it will not be necessary to construct in all 34⁰ for the International Atlas more than 1500 sheets. Each sheet bears in addi-



SMALL SECTION, ONE DEGREE SQUARE, OF SHEET "NORTH I-18"
(From an advance sheet of the base-map. It shows the scale 1:1,000,000. Refer to
Section I-18 on opposite page)

tion to its number the name of the locality represented, or the most important geographical feature of the territory, and shows a small index diagram giving the names and numbers of the eight surrounding sheets, which will serve as a convenient reference in joining sheets when a map of large extent is desired.

This will be appreciated by reference to the accompanying reduced map of the United States, which if made of the sheets and mounted would measure approximately 20 x 12 feet. In other words the sheets falling to the United States south of Canada and including slices of the oceans, Canada, and Mexico, number fifty-two, and of these the United States Geological Survey has in preparation nine covering parts of the Eastern, Central, and Western States.

COMPILING THE MAP

From the geographical data of the Survey the base maps are now being compiled on a scale of 1 : 500,000, or 7.89 miles to the inch, and they may be reproduced by photography or photo-lithography on the same or smaller scales. The engraving of the map, however, will be on the 1 : 1,000,000 scale. Mr. R. B. Marshall, Chief Geographer and chairman of the 1 : 1,000,000 map committee of the United States Geological Survey Committee, is in charge of this work and has recently stated that: "It is to be hoped that the task may be prosecuted with such energy, that the first edition of the one millionth map of the United States, as a part of the standard map of the world, may be engraved and published within ten years."

The compilation involves four distinct elements: namely; control, drainage, culture and topography. The control consists of all places or positions which have been determined astronomically or by triangulation, and are found on various surveys, topographical and other maps, such as those of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Geological Survey, and especially those of the Land Office, which have been adjusted to the geodetic positions or precise geographical points on the earth's surface, taking into consideration, of course, its curvature.

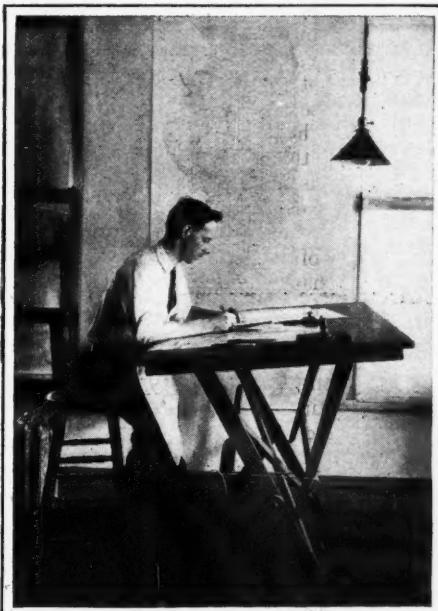
The drainage consists of all lakes, rivers, streams, canals, swamps, and other water bodies, carefully adjusted as regards position to the control discussed above, and so drawn as to preserve their characteristic bends and branchings. The culture includes the various political boundaries, as of States, counties, reservations, etc., and Land Office lines, and

villages, railroads, electric railways, and highways (or roads and trails). Of these a proper selection is made, so as to secure all essential elements, yet not to crowd the map unduly, for each of these features carries its appropriate name. The outline, control, drainage and culture give the base map and are printed in black. On this must be overlaid the topography which is compiled concurrently with the base map.

Unlike most of the nations of Europe, the United States has not complete topographic data and maps for its entire territory, leaving out of question its insular possessions. But the United States Geological Survey has been at work on the preparation of a map or atlas of the entire country and has now surveyed about 1,107,765 square miles, exclusive of Alaska, or more than one-third of the United States. For this territory official maps are available at nominal cost as soon as published by the Survey. These maps, while lacking the refinements of European military and other maps in many cases, are of the greatest practical use. These sheets will be used wherever available, supplemented by the best data to be obtained from other sources.

The topographic map aims to produce a map directly from nature by measurements and sketches, which shows not only the natural features, such as drainage and relief, but also those known to the topographer as "cultural," or those which depend upon man, as railways, canals, mines, buildings, etc. The topographic sheets, mapped in the field and inked in the office of the Survey, of course are published on a larger scale than the Standard International Map and one of the sheets of the usual size represents a section of country that one might walk across in a few hours. But the redrawing while eliminating the non-essential detail takes into consideration all the essential features and reproduces them at the desired scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

Thus the topographical relief, or differences of altitude over a region, will be shown by generalized contour lines connecting points at the same altitude and spaced at intervals depending upon the level or mountainous character of the country and the extent to which data are available. To bring out detail too small to be shown by the contours and the minor features of the valleys, shading will be used, but open contours and limited shading will prevail, so as not to obscure the base map. The topographical map thus compiled upon a photo-lithographic copy of the base map will give the copy for engraving the 1 : 1,000,000 map, the features of which will be printed in



GEOLOGICAL SURVEY DRAFTSMAN COMPILED UNITED STATES PORTION OF INTERNATIONAL MAP

the various colors specified in the international agreement.

It may be said that the execution of the original copy now being made by the United States Geological Survey is being accomplished not only with great care as to accuracy of compilation, but also with special attention as to delineation and the quality of lettering and other details, to secure the best possible reproduction by direct photo-lithography.

UNIFORMITY OF NOMENCLATURE

The achievement of uniformity in these International Standard maps has been further accomplished by agreement on a number of important conventions aside from matters of scale and projection. Thus the spelling and transliteration of names is to be that of the country or dominion represented by the map and the Latin alphabet is to be used. Accordingly such familiar terms as "The Hague" will appear as "S'Gravenhagen," "Vienna" will be "Wien," "Florence," "Firenze," etc. On the maps of China and Russia, Chinese and Russian characters will not be used, and as regards Chinese names, always a stumbling block to cartographers, the usage of the Post and Customs Service will be followed.

The conventional signs agreed upon follow in the main those used for many years on

maps of the United States Geological Survey, lettering and symbols being specified with definiteness in order to secure absolute uniformity. All culture is in black except roads which are red; all drainage is in blue, contours in brown, and shading in gray. Names will be in the same colors as the features except mountains which are lettered in black.

To show topographic relief, there will be drawn a series of generalized contours with intervals varying from 100 meters (328 feet) in normal country to 200, 500, or 1000 in hilly or mountainous regions; and color effects will be used to show the distribution of altitudes and sea depths. Different shades of blue will denote different depths of lakes and seas, three shades of green will indicate lowlands from sea level to 300 meters (984.25 feet), pale buff will be used up to 500 meters (1640.42 feet), followed by brown gradually growing darker up to 3000 meters (9842.50 feet), then comes violet fading into white at the highest elevations above 7000 meters (22,965.83 feet).

Once these and other conventions are found on the Standard International maps it is to be hoped that they will become universal and the maps of atlases, guide books, encyclopedias and other reference works published in different countries will soon be made on a uniform basis, not to mention the various official maps which to-day show a striking lack of harmony.

In the single matter of relief, for example, there is great diversity.

On Chinese maps the shapes of the mountains are shown, in Germany and Austria slopes are indicated by hachures, in France there is shading as in a relief model or plaster map, while in the United States points at the same altitude are connected by contour lines spaced at certain definite distances of elevation.

To secure international and scientific uniformity, the metric scale is to be used in preference to other measures, inasmuch as every map shall bear a scale expressed in kilometers, and altitudes will be marked in meters both for fixed points and contours, but other scales and equivalent values in other units may be added. Accordingly for British and American maps a scale of miles will be added just as is done with the maps of the Coast Survey which are prepared from surveys where the metric measures are used.

When a sheet covers an area belonging to several neighboring countries, it was agreed that the government producing the map should consult with all the governments in-

tered as regards the material available, but more especially as regards nomenclature.

The completion of the Standard International Map of the world not only is of importance for its primary objects, but for the great impetus that it will give to the exploration and survey of the less known regions of the world, as a good-natured rivalry is bound to ensue in completing the quota of the sheets assigned to each nation. To do this, further surveys will be instituted, while from time to time additions and corrections will be made to existing sheets. Finally, when the world map is completed, it will afford a satisfactory base map on which may be laid coloring or other modifications for census purposes, for geology, ethnography, crops, meteorology, and similar objects.

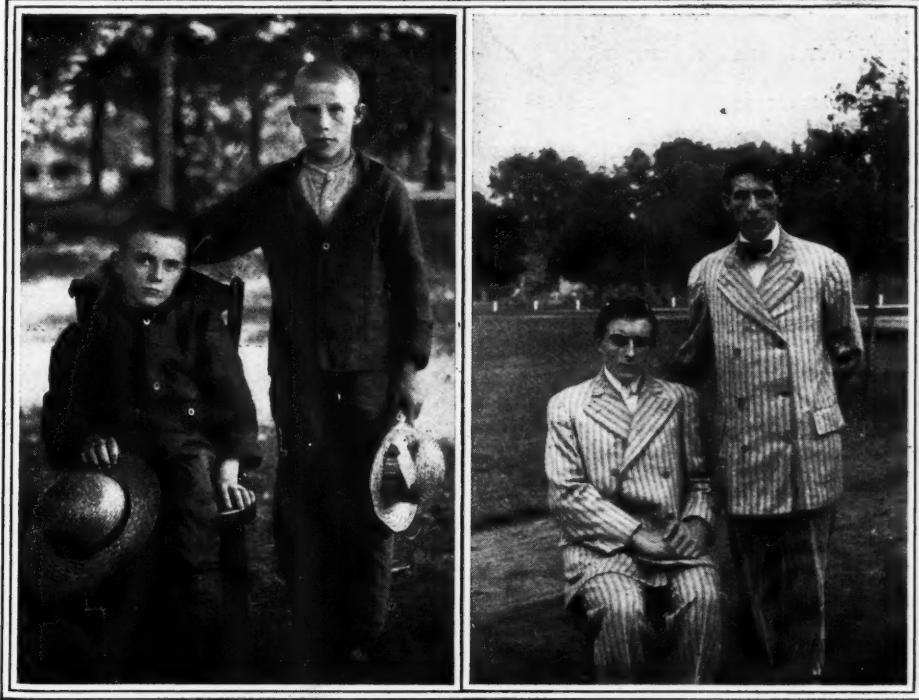
What the time required to complete this great atlas will be, it is of course impossible to tell. For the sheets to be compiled by the funds are provided.

United States Geological Survey it is estimated that the base and topographic maps can be completed in ten or twelve years at the present rate of Federal appropriations. But with the coöperation of the individual States this time can be reduced materially. The estimated cost of compiling the base map without the topography is stated as from \$15 to \$35 per thousand square miles. The cost is least, of course, where the topographic surveys are full and complete, and most in densely settled districts where many names and details of culture must be added, or where a lack of maps or surveys makes compilation difficult. So well organized is the geographic work of the Geological Survey, compensating in large measure for the poor work of American private map makers, that the cost can be gauged with considerable exactness and the work prosecuted with vigor and precision as the funds are provided.



GEOLOGICAL SURVEY DRAFTSMAN USING THE PANTOGRAPH IN COMPILED THE UNITED STATES PORTION OF THE INTERNATIONAL MAP

(This is to reduce a map to a smaller scale)



SELF-SUPPORTING PUPILS IN THE VINELAND TRAINING SCHOOL

(The picture at the left represents these boys—half-brothers—as they came from the poorhouse to enter the Training School in 1901. The picture at the right is from a photograph taken after they had been in the school just eight years. One of the boys now acts as assistant to the teachers in gymnasium and handicraft work; the other in the tailor shop. Both can read, write, and "cipher"; but can never be released altogether from institutional control. Since, however they are self-supporting, the State appropriation for them has been withdrawn)

AN EXPERIMENT STATION IN RACE IMPROVEMENT

BY FRANCES MAULE BJÖRKMÅN

IN one of [those institutions that, in the old days, would have been called an "idiot asylum," there was a little boy known as Peter.

For a long time after his arrival at the institution Peter was a serious problem. In all his classes he sat staring apathetically before him, taking the work that was put into his hands, holding it patiently until it was taken away, but doing absolutely nothing with it.

However, none of his teachers—for in this institution they do teach even idiots—forced or urged him. They just kept on, day after day, giving him the materials for work and trying with all sorts of gentle wiles to interest him in what the other children were doing.

Then at Easter some one sent him a toy rabbit, and in the manual training class next day he produced this from his pocket, took up his tools and began a pitiful attempt to carve out a copy of it in the wood before him. Quick to seize the advantage, his teacher, a young woman of unusual pedagogical acumen, helped and guided the fumbling little hands until another rabbit actually did begin to take form before the boy's delighted eyes.

After that there was no trouble with Peter. A way had been found into his mind, and his sleeping faculties had been awakened and set to work. Before long it became evident that somewhere in his darkened mentality there had been lying dormant a real gift for wood-working, and to-day Peter is

rapidly developing into an excellent carpenter.

In this same institution there was another difficult child by the name of Daisy. Daisy was one of the restless, troublesome kind. She "couldn't keep her mind on her work." She fidgeted, spoiled materials, distracted the other children.

One day somebody gave Daisy a doll—a wonderful creature of peculiar charms and accomplishments; and Daisy's delight in it gave her teachers an idea. The same discerning young woman in the manual training room suggested that it would be splendid for Daisy to build a house for her new doll. Daisy took to the notion at once; and the sewing teacher, the modeling teacher, and the teacher of weaving and basketry, coached by the manual training teacher, took up the suggestion and urged the desirability of curtains, dishes, rugs, and carpets for the doll's house.

So Daisy fell to work, encouraged and stimulated in every class, to build and furnish a dwelling suitable for her darling; and almost from the start she began to manifest powers that her teachers had at best only suspected. She had been supplied with a life interest, something she wanted to do and saw a reason for doing; and this called forth, naturally and inevitably, the latent capacities of her sluggish intelligence.

The institution in which these two miracles were performed—for miracles they would have been considered a decade or two ago—is the Vineland Training School for Feeble-minded Boys and Girls; but although it sets the standards for all the other institutions of its kind in the country, and has made the name of the little town of Vineland famous wherever the care and training of mentally defective children is being studied, it is beginning to be valued not so much for its work for the sub-normal—remarkable as that is—as for the light that this work throws upon what has been called "the new science of humaniculture."

For here—here in this "idiot asylum"—they are actually applying, and with almost unvarying success, certain radical new theories in regard to the training and education of children that, as far as the normal are concerned, have as yet hardly got beyond the point of academic discussion.

Here they have demonstrated in innumerable such cases as those of Peter and Daisy the validity of the theory, so warmly advocated by many of the foremost students of modern educational methods, but so suspi-

ciously regarded by most parents and teachers, that a child ought not to be forced to do anything it does not want to do, nor prevented from doing anything it does want to do. They have learned that a child's desire is a precious blossom to be watched and watered with the tenderest care, because it is the index to that child's special aptitudes. What a child wants to do, it can do. Therefore, unlike the run of educationally orthodox teachers and parents who feel bound to force or persuade or cajole their children into doing their will, these people at Vineland bend their efforts to find out what is the child's will—and then work that will for all it is worth. The results speak for themselves—in miracles, like those wrought upon Peter and Daisy.

They have also worked out to successful conclusions, the theory, even more provocative to "practical" disciplinarians, that punishment is futile—even harmful. Experience and a knowledge of the laws of modern psychology have taught them that punishments actually increase the chances of repetition of the act punished because they focus the child's attention upon it. On the other hand, rewards for good conduct, by turning the child's mind in that direction, are conducive of more good conduct.

INCENTIVES,—NOT PENALTIES

At Vineland, therefore, they have abolished the penalty and set up the incentive. Chief of these, perhaps, is the "store privilege."

Each child is provided with a "store credit card," and upon this it gets a mark from each of its teachers to whom its lessons and conduct have been satisfactory. Each of these marks is equivalent to a penny, and on Saturday the child can go to the store and buy as many pennies' worth as there are marks. The children who fail in lessons or conduct are not punished; they simply do not get the marks that would have enabled them to gratify some long-cherished desire for ball or top, for doll or hair-ribbon.

Another incentive lies in the system of grouping the children according to their "dependableness," the most dependable groups having the most privileges, the least dependable, the fewest. An increase of dependableness in any child is immediately rewarded by a transfer to one of the more desirable groups. In the case of a falling off, the culprit goes back, not as a punishment, but as a logical result of unreliability—a simple process that even the dullest seem able to grasp.

The motto of the Training School, printed large in all its literature, is, "We believe in happiness first, all else follows;" and here "happiness" is no mere sentimental abstraction, but an intensely practical working force.

STIMULATING INDIVIDUALITY

Since one of the essentials to happiness is granted by psychologists to be a proud sense of individuality, every effort is made to develop individuality—even in such small matters as clothes. The children are not required to wear a uniform, but are encouraged to choose their own things and to take an interest in their appearance. The size of the school makes it impossible to give to each pupil an individual birthday party, but since it is felt that each child's birthday should be remembered, the teachers have adopted the expedient of having one big party every month for all the children whose birthdays fall within that month. Once a week they have a contest—with prizes—in which every child, down to the dullest, is given a chance to show off what he can do in the line



A PUPIL WHO CAN NEITHER READ NOR WRITE, BUT WHO PAYS HER WAY BY USEFUL WORK

(She is a waitress in the school dining-room, does beautiful woodwork, and plays the cornet in the band)



A GOOD PIANIST,—SKILLED AND TRUSTWORTHY IN ALL FORMS OF INDUSTRIAL WORK
(This pupil helps in the kindergarten)

in which he is most proficient, be it only scrubbing floors or washing dishes—and just as much applause is given to those who do scrub floors and wash dishes, and just as much attention to the awarding of their prizes, as to the higher grade children who "speak pieces" or sing songs.

NOT AFRAID OF FUN

Entertainments, plays, concerts, jollifications of all kinds are going on constantly. Christmas eve every child hangs up its stocking and wakes to find it bulging with its own peculiar wants, just as if it were the petted darling of a private home—and there is always a tree, and a Santa Claus, and more presents on Christmas Day. Every holiday, down to the most insignificant, is celebrated with its own appropriate exercises, and every common day is begun with a glorious general romp, called "morning assembly."

They are not a bit afraid at Vineland of spoiling children with too much fun. Fun, they say, is a primary condition to effective educational work. What they do fear is unhappiness, depression, boredom. So much do



ONE OF THE "HIGH-GRADE" GIRLS

(She will learn to do the necessary things in life, but cannot be trusted to go out from institutional control)

they fear these things, indeed, that to fight them they have organized a secret society—the strangest secret society in the world. It has no officers, holds no meetings, and recognizes only two by-laws. They are these: one member seeing another member looking cross or sad must say instantly, "Do you belong?" and the other member must answer—with a smile.

Music—martial, stirring and gay—is used constantly and designedly to keep up this all-desirable spirit of joy. There is an institution band, of course; and to its inspiring drums and brasses the children go through a large part of their work and play. Singing too, in solo, quartet, sextet, and chorus, of songs selected especially for their inspiriting quality, forms a prominent feature of the daily program.

AMUSEMENT AS PART OF THE SCHOOLING

On the institution grounds there is a little Zoo containing wolves, foxes, ferrets, rabbits, squirrels, guinea-pigs, and many different kinds of birds. There is a fountain with gold fish in it, a merry-go-round, many swings. There are tennis courts, an athletic field, school gardens, a band-stand. On the wide spaces of smooth lawn shaded by beautiful big trees, not a single "keep-off-the-grass" sign is anywhere visible. Four miles away, out in the "real country" the institution holds a piece of woodland on a little river to

which the children are taken on camping trips during the Summer.

These things are provided, not as amusements merely, but as *the* important part of the educational equipment. Tennis, baseball, foot-ball, basket-ball, and all other games and sports are not only encouraged as in the ordinary school, but are systematically taught to all the children as an integral part of their school work. Whatever develops muscular co-ordination, they say at Vineland, tends to develop brain power also.

COTTAGE GROUPS

The children—some 400 in number—are housed in large family groups, classified according to mental grade, in ten attractive little cottages furnished in as homelike and "un-institutional" a manner as the most exacting could ask. Each of these is presided over by a "house-mother," selected not only for her experience, but for her love for and sympathetic understanding of the particular class of children with which she has to deal, so that in the home life as well as in the strictly educational activities, the children are subjected to only those influences that the Vineland people recognize as most favorable to the development of the mind and soul.

PEDAGOGICAL METHODS

The teaching proper centers, naturally, in manual training and gymnasium, although the elementary academic branches are taught, and taught successfully despite the well-nigh overwhelming difficulties of imparting to the feeble-minded anything like abstract knowledge.

Here is where the new educational theories of which I have spoken receive their severest test and come off most highly vindicated. A single little incident that I chanced to witness while I was making the rounds of the school illuminates significantly the workings of the system.

In one of the class-rooms devoted to the academic branches a boy stood at a blackboard writing to the teacher's dictation: "Cedar," she pronounced.

"S-e-d-e-r" wrote the boy.

"That's very good, John," she said brightly, "but I'm sure you can do even better. Try again."

The boy rubbed out the word, paused a moment then wrote, "c-e-d-e-r."

"Splendid!" cried the teacher. "One more trial now, and I'm sure you'll get it just perfect. Come now, think of the sound!"

Once more the boy erased what he had written, and formed the letters, "c-e-d," then paused.

The teacher took the chalk from him. "See here, John, she said, writing the word on the board and underscoring the "a," "what's this letter?"

"Oh, I see!" John exclaimed, nodding eagerly—then quickly finished out his own word correctly.

"You see," whispered the teacher, "we do not direct the children's attention to their mistakes, because that only concentrates their minds upon them, but to the things that we want them to remember."



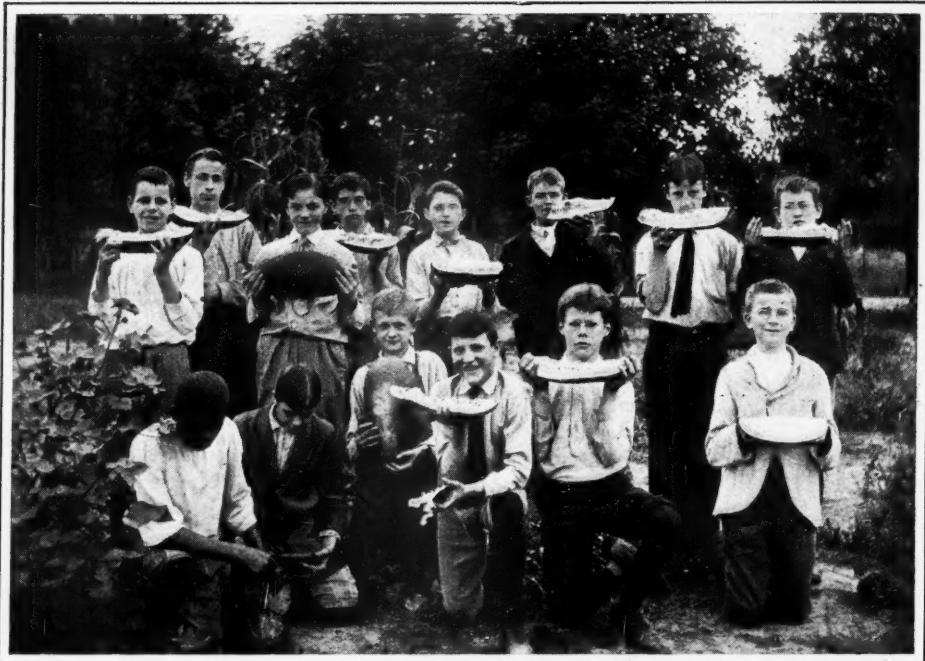
A NINETEEN-YEAR-OLD PUPIL OF THE SCHOOL
(This boy can read, write, and use figures, and do various kinds of handicraft work. He also plays in the band, and is self-supporting)



A BOY IN THE IMBECILE CLASS WHO WAS RENDERED FULLY SELF-SUPPORTING THROUGH TRAINING IN INDUSTRIAL WORK

In this room there were no printed study books. "We make our own readers," the teacher said, showing me a number of papers covered with childish scrawls. A subject having a natural interest to the children is selected—trees, birds, butterflies, guinea-pigs, frogs—and the class trots out to study the tree or the guinea-pig or the frog in its native habitat. They learn as much as they can hold about the subject, and then come back and write down what they have learned; and these writings constitute their lesson books.

"So you can easily understand," said the teacher, "that such things as our zoo, our goldfish fountain, our gardens, woods, orchards and barns, have a very real educational value to our children. We find here that every child, however dull, is more or less interested in the things he sees about him, while even the brightest are profoundly indifferent to written words until they are shown, vividly and convincingly, the connection between the reality and the symbol. Our children, reversing the Dotheboys Hall method of first spelling w-i-n-d-e-r, winder, and then going and washing it; first go out and see a cedar, climb a cedar, carve their names upon a cedar, and then come back and write about it."



THE "HIGHEST-GRADE" BOYS IN THE SCHOOL

(They will all become self-supporting in due time)

LABORATORY TESTS

For five years now the school at Vineland has maintained a laboratory of psychological research, the only one of its kind in the country. Here all the children in the institution are repeatedly tested for mental capacity, weighed and measured and photographed by the newest and most scientific devices. Two assistants work in the office tabulating and classifying all this data, while three others go about among the homes of the children gathering information in regard to their family histories as far back, sometimes, as five generations. Much of this information is of immediate practical use in the treatment of the children of the school, and when it has been sufficiently studied and tested, it will almost undoubtedly furnish laws and standards by means of which the mental capacity of any child can be accurately measured, and the kind and degree of training it can take on determined to a nicety. But its chief importance, experts agree, is the light it throws on the whole subject of race improvement. The two hundred family trees that have already been worked out by Dr. Goddard are said to form the most complete and reliable data ever collected on the subject of human

heredity, and from them, say the scientists, principles of the very deepest significance to the future of humanity will unquestionably be deduced.

The results of the novel educational methods in use in the institution have been measured, not only by practical use, but scientifically by means of exact experiments.

In Dr. Goddard's laboratory there is a machine called the ergograph which measures exactly in kilometers and centigrams just how much vital force the operator is able to exert at a given moment. Innumerable experiments upon the children with this machine have demonstrated beyond all question that more force can be exerted by a person in a happy frame of mind, or under the influence of encouragement or pleasurable excitement, than by the same person in a mood of sadness and discouragement. An experiment made in my presence upon a boy of fifteen, the graphic record of which is herewith reproduced, shows strikingly just how encouragement can cause a measurable increase in vital force, and how, conversely, discouragement can cause it to fall off.

The amount of force exerted by the subject is indicated in the record by the length and firmness of the lines. At starting, Dr.

Goddard patted the boy on the shoulder and exclaimed heartily that he expected him to break all the records. The pencil of the indicator recorded the effect of this stimulation in long, firm lines, which, however, after a time began to run down. Then Dr. Goddard cried out enthusiastically that "that was fine, splendid," and the pencil instantly shot up to a higher point than had been achieved before. Gradually, however, the lines shortened again. Once more Dr. Goddard administered encouragement, and once more the pencil shot upward in quick response. When the lines began to decrease the third time, the doctor shook his head gravely, sighed and remarked, "poor, very poor. I'm afraid he can't go on." The boy's face fell, but he made an heroic attempt to move the pencil. A faint wiggle showed on the paper, but that was all—nor was he able once more after that to produce a single long line.

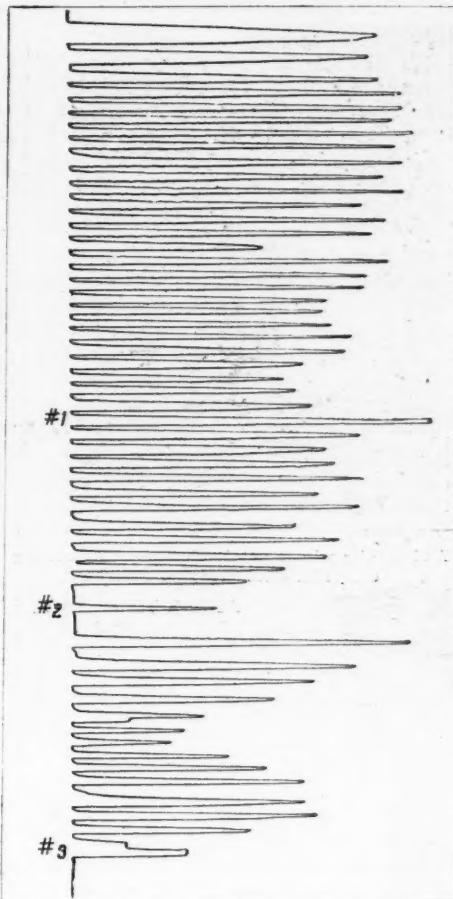
The spirit in which the work is carried on is beautifully expressed in this verse from Whittier's "Agassiz," hanging over Dr. Goddard's desk:

"We are groping here to find
What the hieroglyphics mean,
What the thought that underlies
Nature's making and disguise,
What it is that hides beneath
Blight and bloom and birth and death."

"When we consider the incalculable importance to the future of studies like these," Dr. Goddard said to me, "we can no longer look upon these poor, afflicted little ones of ours as pure waste. They seem given to us to study. We cannot make scientifically accurate studies upon normal children; they go too fast for us; but in the slow development of the sub-normal, we have just the opportunity we need for noting with the necessary slowness and caution all the various processes of unfolding life. And out of these studies we may at last evolve a true science of eugenics."

The Training School is not a State institution except in that the State pays for those of its wards who are sent there, but is supported by an association of some 200 private persons. It takes both paid and free pupils, the latter being supported out of a free fund.

The land not otherwise used is given over to intensive scientific farming, an experiment in grapes being conducted under the supervision of the United States Department of Agriculture, and one in peaches under the New Jersey State Station. This not only furnishes the institution with many of its necessary supplies but gives employment to



A RECORD OF THE "ERGOGRAPH"

(First encouragement at No. 1; fatigue at No. 2, followed by repeated stimulation; exhaustion at No. 3)

large numbers of its grown-up pupils. Indeed, practically all the labor for the shops and barns, the laundry, cannery and powerhouse, as well as for the farm, orchards, vineyard and truck gardens, is furnished by adult pupils who are thus rendered self-sustaining while still kept under institutional control.

E. R. Johnstone, superintendent of the institution, is one of those men who seem divinely appointed to their work in the world. His name, like that of Vineland, is associated with all that is most authoritative and at the same time most advanced in the training of the mentally defective. He is lecturer on this subject at the New York School of Philanthropy, and conducts a summer course at the Training School for teachers who wish to fit themselves especially for work with retarded and defective children.



A white cedar pole, untreated with preservatives, showing decay after about three years of service



A creosoted pine pole, showing no decay after more than eighteen years of service

ADDING YEARS TO THE LIFE OF TELEPHONE POLES

GETTING THE MOST OUT OF OUR WOOD PRODUCTS

BY MARY BURCHARD ORVIS

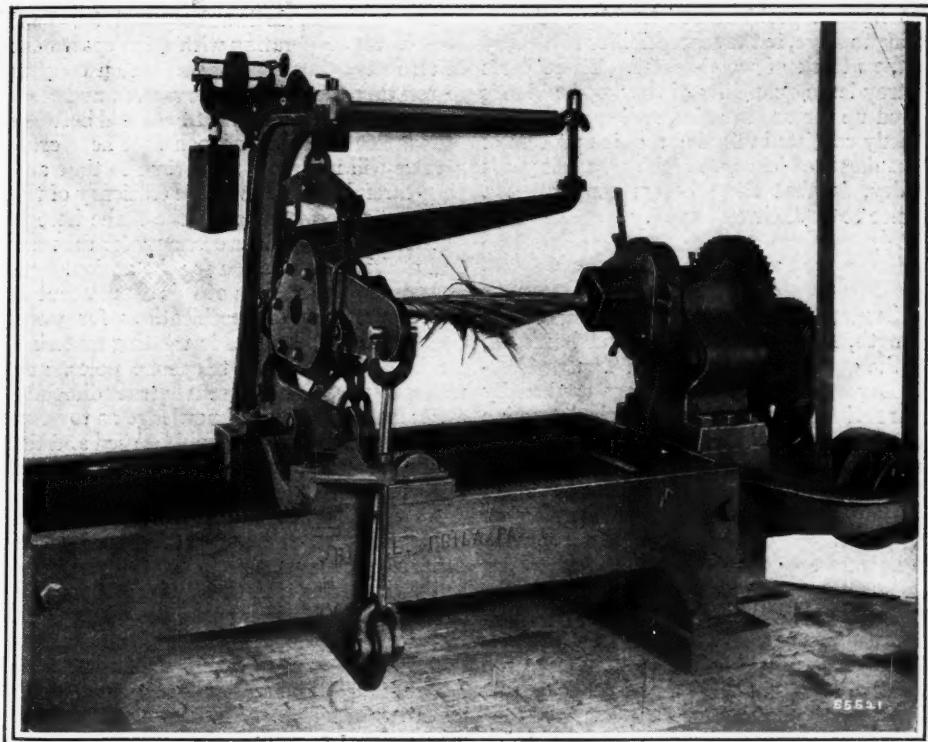
THE nation has heard a great deal in the last ten years about the necessity for protecting its forests against the attacks of fire, wind, disease, and pest (to say nothing of the "special interests"). It has come to realize that its wasteful methods of lumbering are an added menace that can only result in a wood famine, unless steps are taken to prevent such a calamity. All this has been repeatedly emphasized, but less has been said of the waste that is taking place under our present methods of using the wood *after it leaves the forest*. Yet the Forest Service has estimated that 49 per cent. of the logs that reach the sawmill is lost in the form of slabs, trimmings, edgings, sawdust, and bark. In addition to this mill waste, forest products are subject to the ravages of decay, fire, insects, and marine borers, when put into commercial use, to the extent of about 740,000,000 cubic feet annually.

THE FOREST PRODUCTS LABORATORY

The elimination of this waste in wood products is the problem of the United States

Forest Products Laboratory, which aims to use the whole tree, as long as possible. It does not conduct mysterious experiments, with vague theoretical results that are of no interest to the layman. While its methods are most scientific, its actual work is intensely practical and is of immense value to every consumer of wood, from the user of fence posts to the builder of bridges. The laboratory seeks to find uses for woods now being wasted, to improve present methods of seasoning and handling them, to lengthen their serviceable life, to find satisfactory substitutes for those now becoming scarce, and to substitute other materials for products now made of wood.

The laboratory was dedicated at Madison, Wisconsin, June 4, 1910. It is run in co-operation with the University of Wisconsin, which furnishes the buildings, yard space, heat, light, water, gas, and power required for operation. The United States Forest Service pays all other operating expenses, and, in return for what the State furnishes, presents lectures on forestry at the university



THE TORSION TEST APPLIED TO A STICK OF HICKORY IN THE TIMBER-TESTING DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES FOREST PRODUCTS LABORATORY

and allows the students and faculty the use of its laboratory, which is the only one of its kind in the world. Wisconsin secured the laboratory only after a big fight had been made for it by several other States and universities, all of which made generous offers of land and buildings. Just why Wisconsin won out, no one knows, though it was popularly supposed that the early stand of President Van Hise for conservation was an important factor. Perhaps it was because of the location of the university at Madison, which is a railroad center in a lumbering State.

McGarvey Cline is director of the laboratory and has the difficult task of coöordinating and standardizing the work of the different departments; he has two assistants, Mr. H. F. Weiss, and Mr. H. S. Bristol, who aid him in passing upon all plans and projects undertaken by the laboratory. The total number of employees is fifty-five, thirty-three of them being technical men recruited from the professions of forestry, engineering, and chemistry. These men, together with the other employees, are chosen in accordance with civil service regulations.

The building, which cost about \$55,000, is of red brick with a concrete construction. Adjoining it is a lumber yard and sawmill which make not only the accurate specimens required for experiments, but all the furniture for the building. Branch tracks bring supplies directly from the railroad, which passes near the laboratory.

The technical work of the laboratory is done by the following departments: Timber Physics, Timber Tests, Wood Preservation, Wood Distillation, Wood Pulp, and Chemistry.

TIMBER PHYSICS

The section of Timber Physics studies the structure and physical properties of wood and how they are affected by different methods of seasoning. It also endeavors to correlate the microscopic structure of the various species with their uses. At present this department is coöoperating with the Pioneer Pole and Shaft Company, which owns mills all over the country, by superintending the installation of a dry-kiln plant at Cairo, Illinois, for the company. The implement and vehicle industries

also have a problem which this section is trying to solve, in the susceptibility of hickory to the attack of wood-borers. These pests destroy large quantities of the wood which is stored up for use in axles, spokes, etc. The remedy consists in finding a quick process of seasoning the hickory, which now takes years to dry, so that these borers cannot get a chance to do their evil work.

TIMBER TESTS

The mechanical properties of wood, such as strength, stiffness, toughness, and hardness, are the qualities studied in the Timber Testing Department. The tests are applied by means of loading machines which determine the proper working stresses to be used in timber structure. For example, the dead load apparatus makes a long, slow test on timbers for bridges and buildings. There are also the impact, the static bending, and the repetitive loading tests, and one that is carried on by compression. The effects of different methods of seasoning, preserving, and fireproofing, upon the mechanical properties are studied. This department is trying to determine the influence of knots, checks, and other defects of structural timbers, so that they may be graded for the use of architects, engineers, and lumbermen.

A series of tests is being made on samples of all of the commercial woods of the United States, for determining their mechanical properties with a view to finding substitutes for woods now becoming scarce. The apparatus and time required for the vast number of tests and analyses are so expensive that only the Government can afford to carry them on, yet results are obtained that are of the greatest value to architects, engineers, and manufacturers of wood products, to say nothing of all users of boxes and crates.

WOOD PRESERVATION

Wood preservation consists in impregnating wood with substances to retard decay and ward off the attacks of insects and marine borers. The laboratory is equipped with a fungus pit, in which wood treated with preservatives is placed and its resistance to the fungi tested. In addition to studying the preservatives, the laboratory takes up the problem of getting them into the wood in the best way. This class of work deals mainly with the design and operation of machinery for forcing the preservatives into the different species and forms of timber.

The Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul Railroad is coöperating with this department in an interesting experiment, which consists in treating ties with preservatives and then placing them in a test track to be laid between Milwaukee and Minneapolis. The Forest Service will inspect it from time to time and keep careful records as to the efficiency of the different processes used. The stake here is public safety, as well as economy for the road and timber conservation for the nation.

Another big problem of this department is the determining of specifications for wood preservatives to be used in treating materials for block pavements, telephone poles, and railroad ties. At present great difficulty arises from the lack of knowledge as to what kinds of preservatives should be used and the public, as well as contractors, often suffers as a result.

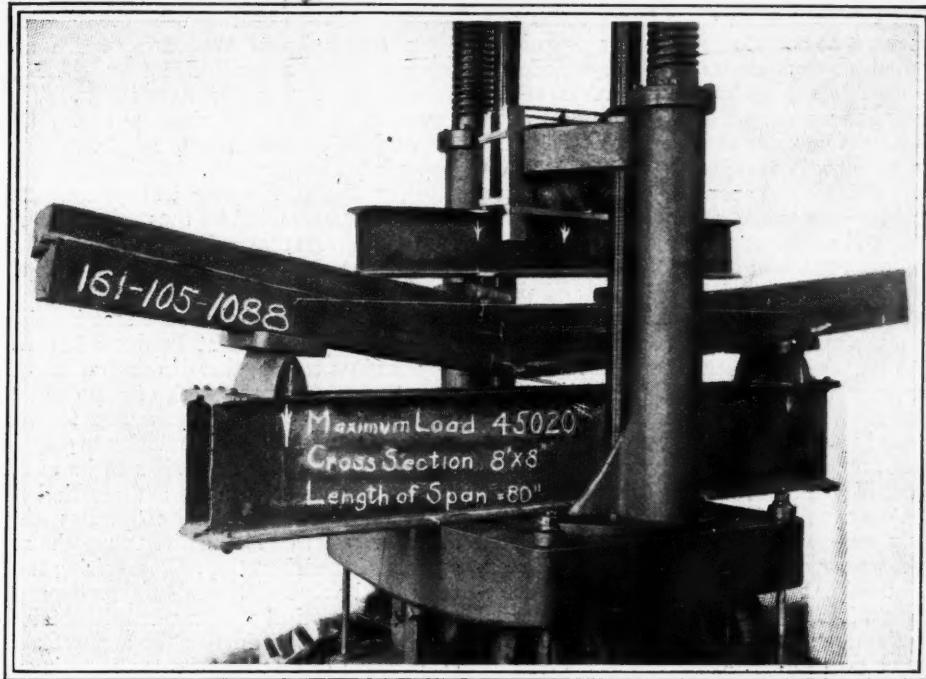
An experiment on piling is another interesting one that is being carried on by this department. It consists in treating the wood and then placing it in the Gulf of Mexico and the bay of California, where the water is infested with toredo, a worm-like mollusk, that does great damage to wood. Still other tests have been made on materials to be used in the construction of silos. Numerous other tests are also being made; in fact this one branch of the laboratory is doing work that materially affects six great industries,—railroading, shipping, mining, electrical communication, street-paving, and farming.

WOOD DISTILLATION

Wood distillation has for its problem the practicability of securing by-products of commercial value from the various forms of wood waste. It studies what products can be secured from the different woods, the refining of the crude products, and the design and operation of machinery best adapted to their production. It bears directly upon the problem of waste, and means economy for the manufacturer and in national resources, for it aims at finding a use for everything that comes from mill and forest. Those by-products of the greatest commercial value are alcohol, acetates, turpentine, and wood creosote.

CHEMISTRY

Wood chemistry is closely allied to distillation, as it, too, is concerned with the by-products. It is making a special study of methods of producing rosin and turpentine, since the processes now employed are very



THE STATIC BENDING TEST ON BEAMS

wasteful to standing timber. An effort is being made to find a substitute for the longleaf pine of the South, which is the main source of our turpentine supply. Since one tree lasts only four years as a producer of turpentine, it may easily be seen that the supply cannot keep up with the demand for this species of tree. But it has been learned that the Western yellow pine can be utilized in the same way as the Southern and the Forest Service is carrying on experiments in California and Arizona, to determine how much rosin and turpentine can be obtained in one year from a Western pine. There is also the possibility of using other conifers of the West.

One important work that is being done is the classifying of the different kinds of creosote obtained from tars, as to their chemical and physical properties. At present the United States is importing most of its higher grades of preserving oil from Europe, because its own tar-paper industry consumes most of the coal tar by-products, of which creosote is one. The Forest Service is endeavoring to obviate the necessity of importing creosote, and is testing about two hundred different tars obtained from coal, wood, and oil gas plants. The samples are shipped to the laboratory, whose business it is to see which ones

will yield the best preservatives when distilled. When the experiments have been completed, a report will be issued that will be invaluable to consumers of creosote in the United States.

A very interesting branch of the work of this department is the production of ethyl alcohol from material that would otherwise be wasted. This alcohol, which is the same as grain alcohol, is fermented from sugars produced by the action of acids on wood fiber. The process makes use of the waste of forest and sawmill. The Forest Service has estimated that of the volume of trees cut in the United States for lumber, 25 per cent. is left in the woods, as culled logs, tree-tops, and stumps; 16.5 per cent. is wasted in slabs, trimmings, etc., 10.5 per cent. in sawdust, and 9.8 per cent. in bark. This makes the startling total of 62 per cent.—utterly wasted. If the process of distilling alcohol is perfected, however, this enormous waste will cease, and instead of a small part, nearly the whole tree will be utilized.

WOOD PULP

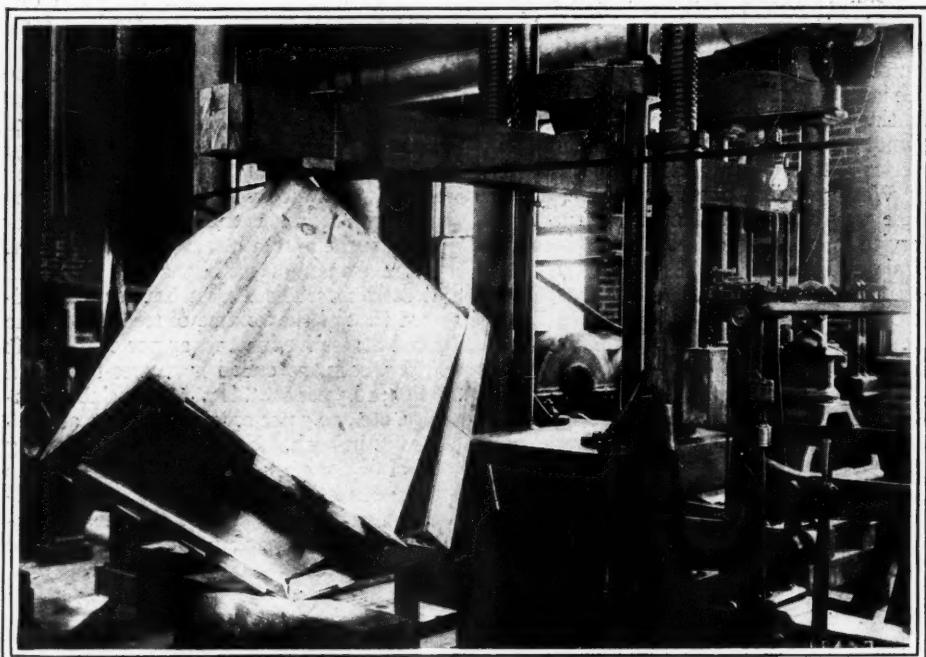
The Wood Pulp department is concerned with the paper industry, which ranks fifth in the United States in the value of product.

The total capital invested in the industry is about \$200,000,000 and the wages paid to American workmen nearly \$140,000,000 annually. This huge industry is making alarming inroads upon our supply of spruce, which is far too valuable as a structural timber for us to allow it to be entirely used up in the manufacture of paper. The aim of the laboratory here, as in other branches of the work, is to find a cheaper substitute, and to prevent the destruction of an important wood. The laboratory has a miniature pulp and paper mill, which is making experiments in the use of other woods than spruce, such as hemlock, and the scrubby "jack pine," which is found in large quantities in Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin. Until recently this tree was looked upon as a "forest weed" and considered worthless commercially on account of its short life when cut and put to structural use.

Congress recognized the importance of the pulp and paper work when it appropriated \$30,000 for a branch laboratory at Wausau, Wisconsin, the purpose of which is "To determine if it is possible to produce a commercial grade of ground wood from other species of wood than spruce, which will be suitable for the production of news, wrapping and other cheaper grades of paper." The Wausau

laboratory is coöperating with the different paper companies of Wisconsin, which are represented by a committee from the National Pulp and Paper Association. The woods to be used experimentally are, the yellow birch, white birch, maple, poplar, jack pine, and hemlock. Success in substituting them for spruce will prolong the supply of raw material for the paper industry indefinitely; and that means, not only conservation, but cheaper paper for the people of America.

The importance of the work that is being carried on by the Forest Products Laboratory hardly needs further demonstration. It almost seems as if the work of any one department would justify the outlay for the whole laboratory. Yet in addition to getting material results, the staff aims to be of all possible service to societies and associations interested in its work, and coöperates with all organizations which desire to use the resources of the laboratory. Recognizing that the actual value of the laboratory depends upon the practical results which it obtains, the Forest Service invites the support and coöperation of all men who are in intimate association with the commercial problems of the wood-using industries.

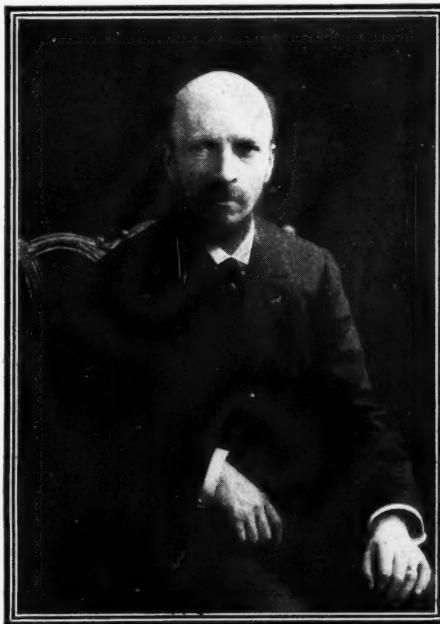


TESTING A BOX

TRYING TO SOLVE THE WORLD'S PROBLEMS OF RACE

BY SAINT NIHAL SINGH

WHITHER is humanity being led by the demand of the yellow, brown, and black races that the "white" folk treat them in accordance with the Golden Rule?

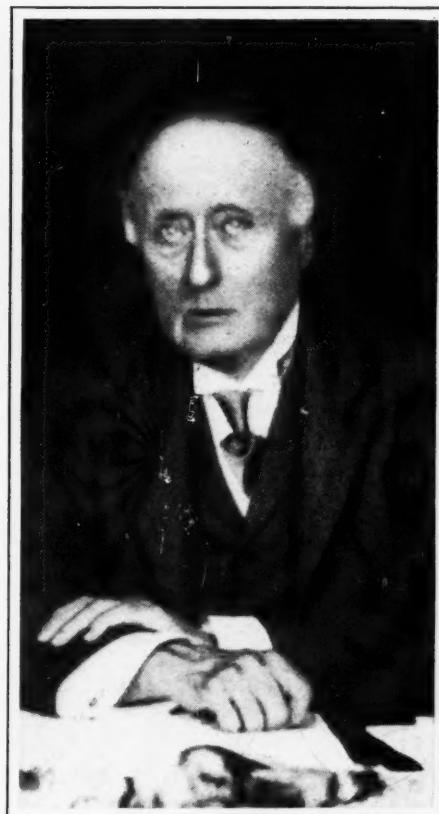


DR. FELIX ADLER, OF NEW YORK
(Who originated the idea of the Races Congress)

Some thinkers would have us believe that a tremendous conflict of color is impending. But there are those who realize that the world is moving away from war and racial strife, not toward it; and believing this, they desire to see all questions of dissension harmonized, and Easterner and Westerner, colored and white, finally embrace one another in a fraternal spirit.

A select group of such people, coming from fifty lands, representing twenty-four governments, twenty universities, and 160 associations, including the presidents of over thirty parliaments, twelve British pro-consuls and eight British Premiers, the majority of the members of the Permanent Court of

Arbitration, most of the delegates of the Second Hague Conference, fifty colonial Bishops, 130 professors of international law, the bulk of the membership of the Inter-Parliamentary Union, the leading anthropologists and sociologists of the world, and many other distinguished personages, altogether comprising a total of 1100 active members, 1000 passive members, and 300 delegates, under the name of the Universal Races Congress, held its meetings, lasting four days from July 26th to July 29th, inclusive, in the big assembly hall of the University of London. It was called forth with



RT. HON. LORD WEARDALE, PRESIDENT OF THE
RACES' CONGRESS



DR. W. E. B. DU BOIS
(Atlanta Univ.)



PROF. EARL FINCH
(Wilberforce Univ.)



DR. FRANZ BOAS
(Columbia Univ.)



DR. PAUL S. REINSCH
(Wisconsin Univ.)



DR. C. A. EASTMAN
(American Indian)

SOME OF THE EMINENT MEMBERS OF THE FIRST UNIVERSAL RACES



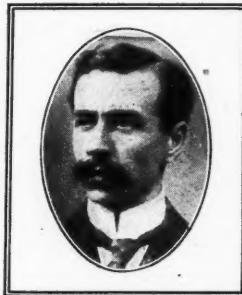
DR. DE NAVRATIL
(Kolozsvár Univ., Hungary)



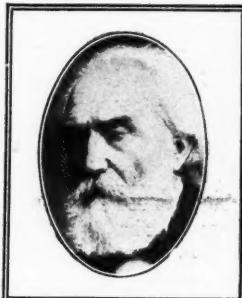
GENERAL LÈGITIME
(Ex-President of Haiti)

the object of discussing "in the light of science and the modern conscience, the general relations subsisting between the peoples of the West and those of the East, between so-called white and so-called colored peoples, with a view to encouraging between them a fuller understanding, the most friendly feelings, and a heartier coöperation." In order to make its deliberations a success, it was decided that the assemblage should not be purely scientific in point of merely stating facts without recording judgments; and while sympathetic toward all and avoiding all expression of bitterness toward governments, peoples or factions, it should not bar those who took part in its discussions from expressing their reasonable praise or blame of existing political parties and religious agencies.

The idea of organizing such a convention originated in the fertile brain of Dr. Felix Adler, Professor of Social Ethics in Columbia University and the founder of the Ethical Culture Society. Speaking in 1906, at a meeting of the International Union of Ethical Societies assembled at Eisenach, he de-



GUSTAVE SPILLER
(Organizer of the Congress)



DR. GIUSEPPE SERGI
(Italian scientist)



DR. LUSCHAN
(Berlin Univ.)



HENRI LA FONTAINE
(Belgian jurist)



PROF. FOUILÉE
(Institut de France)



DR. A. YASTCHENKO
(Dorpat Univ.)



ALFRED FRIED
(Vienna journalist)



ISRAEL ZANGWILL SIR CHARLES BRUCE DR. J. S. MACKENZIE SIR H. JOHNSTON DR. T. W. RHYS DAVIDS
 (Jewish author) (Late Gov. Mauritius) (Cardiff) (Student of the negro) (Univ. of Manchester)

CONGRESS, HELD AT LONDON DURING THE LAST WEEK OF JULY



DR. MOJOLA AGBEBI
 (Niger Delta Mission)

clared that the modern conscience had not kept pace with the racial problems confronting the world to-day, and that a congress should be convened with a view to finding the way out of the labyrinth of prejudiced opinion in which all races are lost. Almost from that day to the time fixed for the sessions, Mr. Gustave Spiller, the honorary organizer, with the aid of a strong executive council, international in its personnel, with headquarters in the British metropolis, actively undertook the task of sending propagandist literature and invitations to the four corners of the globe, requesting men and women of world-wide fame to contribute thoughtful papers on inter-racial problems, and as many of them as possible to support the congress by personally taking part in its deliberations. In some countries, the United States for one, committees were formed to push the scheme.

It is not within the scope of this article to report the speeches delivered at the various sessions of the Congress and the discussions that followed them; or to attempt a statement of the scientific theories that



MRS. RHYS DAVIDS
 (Indian philosophy)



DR. GENCHI KATO
 (Tokyo University)



WU TING FANG
 (Chinese diplomat)



HADJI YAHYA
 (Teheran)

BABA BHARATI
 (Hindu sage)

THE GAEKWAR OF
 BARODA

J. TENGO JABAVU
 (South Africa)

DR. SEAL
 (India)

claimed or disclaimed a common origin for the different races and explained their present relative superiority or otherwise as being due to environment and climatic influences. The aim is to set forth from an Oriental's—and, a colored man's—point of view how far the modern conscience really has progressed toward racial harmony, and what forces are bringing this about, as disclosed by the public debates of those who composed the membership of the Universal Races Congress, and private conversations with them.

The central fact is that while scientific theories every day more and more converge to the monogenetic origin of mankind; while the color of the skin is now authoritatively explained to be not the hall-mark of superiority or inferiority but the result of climatic influences; while it has been demonstrated that all people are capable of the highest evolution—a scientific statement corroborated by experienced British pro-consuls: yet these theories in themselves are not giving the prestige to the red, black, yellow, and brown races which they desire. Religion, long before science issued its dictum, laid emphasis upon the common origin of all human beings, and proclaimed the brotherhood of man. But the scientists' theories and the preachers' oracular announcements alike have failed to lift the colored people from the slough of inferiority. Few will affirm that either factor has done nothing toward raising the status of the so-called inferior races but, even the most ardent partisan cannot claim that, singly or combined, they have gone very far in removing the stigma that attaches to certain peoples.

Propinquity, especially such as is established by the immigration of the yellow and brown races into the so-called preserves of the whites, or arising from the presence of the African ex-slaves and their descendants, or from the governmental tutelage of aborigines by the Caucasians, has not, as is well known, resulted in harmony, but, on the contrary, in the United States, Canada, South Africa, and Australia, has been the fruitful cause of discord. Miscegenation springing from such intimate contact, though now pronounced by many learned sociologists to be not the baneful institution that prejudice would have us believe, but a useful instrument for the development of a hardier and brainier race, has, in most cases and most places, only served to fan the flames of animosity. In other circumstances, yearly the colored folks are forging ahead in one would really have expected that such a

meeting and mating of people of diverse colors would have led to a better understanding of one another, and would have brought social amity in its train. If these factors have not worked for good-will amongst nations, what can be expected to do so?

Commercialism: That, in the light of all that was said and done at the Universal Races Congress, seems to be the answer to this question. Or, if that word may grate against the tender susceptibilities of some, it may be said that "enlightened selfishness" is the thread that is to draw and knit the races of the world together.

In this day and age, when distance has been annihilated, no country, even be it Tibet, can lead an existence all its own. No land, no matter how strong a tariff wall it may erect to keep out competition, can shield its market from world competition. Capital, instead of being parochial, already has become international, and daily the circle of its activity is widening. Industries, so long as they are scientifically organized and conducted, are bound to be successful whether they are under the management of Orientals or Occidentals.

To-day, if an Afro-American perfects a useful invention, the white people cannot afford to ignore it as a "nigger" patent; if the Japanese can kill hundreds of thousands of Occidental soldiers with their home-made rifles, guns and powder, and drive to the bottom of the sea the most formidable of the Western dreadnaughts and super-dreadnaughts with ships made in their own dockyards, the West cannot overlook Nippon's progress; if the Celestial can set up modern factories and turn out commercially successful wares, they cannot be condemned because Mongolians manufactured them; if the Hindu shows that he can make better bombs than the Russian terrorist, his ability to work destruction cannot be underrated because of the color of his hide; if the Persian, Egyptian and Turk rise in the commercial firmament, their advance cannot be explained away by the sneering use of such a term as "unspeakable Mohammedans"; and if the native of South Africa can argue or preach better in the Englishman's mother-tongue than the Britisher himself, his accomplishment cannot be laughed out of court. The fact is that a matter-of-fact world cannot afford to give undue heed to senseless prejudices, and more and more the white people are beginning to realize that every department of life. This, is giving a

new status to the erstwhile inferior peoples, as nothing else could do.

It is also dawning upon the white races, to use the words of Sir Charles Bruce, G.C. M.G., late Governor of Mauritius, that "the modern conscience rejects as a fallacy the claim of Western civilization to a monopoly of the capacity of self-government based on an indivisible inter-relation between European descent, Christianity, and so-called white color." The Japanese for years have been governed under a parliamentary system; China is rapidly taking it up; India has started in that direction; while Turkey and Persia are struggling hard to make the new experiment a success. Moreover, all thinking Europeans are coming to regard autocratically administered empires as debasing to the characters of Occidentals conducting them. Furthermore, Asia is beginning to use that effective instrument, the commercial boycott, to force the West to adopt the golden rule in dealing with Easterners. In its own way, this, too, is setting up a new racial equilibrium—giving a better status to the Asiatics.

Many constructive proposals for stimulating racial comity, that commend themselves as worthy of trial, were submitted to the Congress. It was suggested by Bajindra Nath Seal, M.A., Ph.D., Principal of the Maharaja of Cooch Behar's College, Cooch Behar, India, that a World's Humanity League, with branches, committees and bureaus in different countries, should be organized, and that congresses should be held in various centers under its auspices to enable Orientals and Occidentals to disseminate cultural ideas, and to promote mutual understanding among members of different races, peoples and nationalities; and that an international journal of comparative civilization, which shall have for its object the application of the biological, sociological and historic sciences to the problems of present-day legislation and administration, should be published to serve as a medium for the exchange of views. He also recommended the endowment of Professors of Oriental Civilization and Culture in Western universities and academies, to be held by Orientals from the countries concerned, and in the East—a suggestion upheld by Dr. Ferdinand Tonnies, Professor of Sociology in the University of Kiel, Germany.

Mr. Gustave Spiller, the Honorary Organizer of the Congress, pointed out that anthro-

pologists, sociologists, and scientific thinkers could confer a great blessing on humanity by expounding the fundamental fallacy involved in taking a static instead of a dynamic, a momentary instead of a historic, a local instead of a comparative view of race characteristics, and that such teaching could be conveniently introduced into geography and history lessons and also into institutions for training teachers, diplomats, administrators, missionaries, etc. Dr. Felix Adler, the father of the Congress, advocated that close attention should be paid to any experiments that have, up to now, been conducted in the schooling of primitive communities; the conditions of success, where a measure of success has been achieved, should be noted; and new experiments of this kind should be undertaken on a large scale. He also declared that the greatest stress should be laid, in the case of those who come into direct influential contact with foreign groups, of a detailed study by them of the people to whom they are sent—of their customs, manners, laws, literature, religion, and art; and that it should be the aim of those who direct such studies to engender in the students a generous appreciation of all that is fine and worthy in the character and culture of the alien peoples; and that it must be borne in mind that only friendliness will secure a hearing, and only those who sincerely appreciate the excellent qualities of foreigners can help them overcome the deficiencies and lead them along the path of further progressive development. More than one person echoed the thought expressed by Professor Giuseppe Sergi, of Rome, who pleaded that among savage tribes no violence should be used in order to make them change their customs; but useful arts and crafts, humane forms of living, and respect for human life by beginning to respect it, could advantageously be introduced; and all urged the sympathetic treatment of the backward races. Several writers of papers, among them Dr. Wu Ting Fang, the great Chinese diplomat who, until recently, represented his country at Washington, D. C., proposed that an international language should be evolved for universal use. At the last session it was decided to form in London a permanent international committee which will affiliate national committees in all parts of the world to carry on this propaganda, and to convene congresses on different continents every few years, it gives promise of continuing its useful work.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAWS

THE laws under which employers are required to pay damages for injuries to workmen differ widely in many States of the Union; but the tendency everywhere seems to be to increase the responsibility of the employer and to diminish that of the worker. The unfortunate workman, often maimed for life, naturally secures the sympathy of judge and jury; and there is a growing custom to consider the fault or negligence of any employee or the defect in a machine to be something that the employer ought not to permit and for which, consequently, he is financially responsible to his employees. Now there are accidents and accidents. It is known that men deliberately place themselves in positions where they are likely to receive injury for the purpose of securing the advantages of compensation therefor. Writing in the *Engineering Magazine*, Mr. William Mayo Venable maintains that the "danger that men will take advantage of any general system of compensating the injured, by injuring themselves so as to secure such compensation, is one of the things to be avoided in any system designed for the proper compensation of the worthy unfortunate." While there are few injuries "which could not be prevented by greater care on the part of the employee, or by the employer, were he able to know what every employee was doing, and to control him, at every hour of the day," there are casualties which "are not the fault of the employer, or of the employee, or of the industry, but simply misfortunes." For example, a man sharpening a saw may get a piece of steel blown into his eye; another may strain his shoulder while lifting; and still another may get hit in the eye, while working, with a pebble thrown by a boy at a bird. Then, again, it is often difficult to discriminate between carelessness and lack of judgment and stupidity. Mr. Venable asserts that in case of an accident to an employee whose employer carries liability insurance, the present procedure is as follows:

As soon as the accident is reported to him, the employer summons a physician, who renders the proper medical attention to the injured man at once, and usually only once. This is called "first

aid." The employer then prepares a statement of the accident, records the names of all witnesses, and sends the statement to the insurance company. He drops the name of the injured party from his payroll, and leaves him to his own resources thereafter until he is able to return to work.

And he very truly remarks that,

whatever the law, our moral nature revolts against the theory that a man, incapacitated for work by some injury received while working at a useful calling, shall be left totally unprovided with the means of support. We must consider it proper to provide by law to meet the necessities of this condition, and not to leave it to the poor man's relatives, or church, or fraternal organization to handle the case, or, as too often happens, leave the man suffering from the lack of physical necessities.

Mr. Venable considers that we should obtain, if possible, a system which "while not relieving an employer of the expense arising from injuries which are the result of his negligence, should not charge him alone for the individual misfortune of any employee." It should also "relieve the individual worker of the results of accidents owing to the risks of his calling, or the carelessness of his fellows, and it should be chary of relieving him of the consequences of his own neglect." The following articles (which we condense) are offered by Mr. Venable as "suggesting the principal ideas which should be embodied in legislation on compensation for injured workers."

ARTICLE I

The industries of the State shall be classified into groups, according to the natural risks of injury to employees . . . Each group of industries shall be obliged to provide compensation sufficient to cover medical attention to all employees injured while in the discharge of their duties; also to compensate employees for wages lost while idle because of such injury, in case of short periods of disability, and to provide partial support and suitable employment for those injured so seriously as to be permanently disabled from their former callings.

ARTICLE II

The cost of this compensation when the employer was not negligent shall be met by a tax imposed upon the industries of the group . . . assessed against all establishments in the State where the industry is carried on, and shall be collected from the employers. . . .

ARTICLE III

When an employer has been negligent he shall be directly liable for damages resulting from his negligence, in addition to the aforesigned tax . . . Negligence is failure to comply with every requirement of law for the safeguarding of employees.

ARTICLE IV

A Commission shall be established, selected under proper safeguards to secure honest men, and charged with the following named duties and powers:

It shall (a) fix the rates, from year to year, at which the various groups of industries shall be taxed . . . (b) have the power to determine the compensation to be paid each applicant for relief on account of injury . . . (c) be furnished with reports of all accidents in all industrial establishments, by the persons conducting the business . . . Failure to report an injury shall be punishable by a fine. (d) . . . have authority to investi-

gate any accident at any time . . . (e) Whenever . . . any accident resulting in injury to an employee was brought about by negligence or fault on the part of an employer . . . the Commission may demand from that employer suitable compensation for the employee, which compensation shall cover not only the financial loss of the employee, but also reimbursement for suffering.

ARTICLE V

An injured employee . . . once having placed his case in the hands of the Commission, shall abide by the judgment of the Commission and not bring action against the employer through other channels.

ARTICLE VI

No person shall be estopped from proceeding to bring suit against a negligent employer directly, if he elects not to avail himself of the services of the Commission . . .

AMERICAN POETS—AN ESTIMATE FOR GERMANS

THE Exchange Professor, it seems, is now to be followed by the Exchange Poet. Germany has already sent a number of literary ambassadors to our shores. These include Karl Hauptmann, Ernest von Wolzogen, and Ludwig Fulda, the last named being the first exchange poet. George Sylvester Viereck, the author of "Nineveh and Other Poems," recently delivered a lecture at the University of Berlin in which he made himself the champion of such a literary exchange. Mr. Viereck, as a member of the Executive Committee of the newly founded Poetry Society of America, insists that the United States should exercise the principle of reciprocity with regard to her poets. He is not blind to the fact that our poets are almost as unknown in our own country as in Europe. "American poetry," he exclaims in his lecture which is reprinted in full in *Rundschau Zweier Welten*, the German-American vehicle of the intellectual exchange, "needs missionaries in America no less than in Europe. America to-day, he insists, has more than half a hundred singers who strike a note of their own. Our poets, it seems, are more frequently inspired by ethical ideas than by primitive human emotions. The American poet, in rebellion against the materialism around him, addresses himself preëminently to the spirit. The erotic note especially is almost entirely absent.

If the Old World poets are apt to lose themselves in the mazes of psychopathic experience, the

American poet dallies too long in the chilly region of ethical speculation. He betrays beauty for truth. His language, moreover, is too artificial, too remote from the parlance of the average man. Even an educated man cannot enjoy a book of verses underneath a bough without consulting his Webster.



GEORGE SYLVESTER VIERECK
(German-American bilingual poet)

An exchange of poets, Mr. Viereck pleads, would broaden and deepen our vision. At the same time, Europe would learn that we can produce not only skyscrapers, but also poets.

In his attempt to interpret American poetry Mr. Viereck divides our poets into four groups. His classification for the first time brings Poe and Whitman, those two solitary figures, vitally into touch with the developments of American poetry as a whole.

First come the poets who, like Whitman, cling to the soil, singers of comradeship whose fargoing democracy extending to all creatures reaches its logical culmination in some form of Pantheism. Second are the poets headed by Poe who stand apart from time and space, aristocrats and esthetic egotists without local association. Third, there are those poets who follow in the footsteps of Longfellow, Whittier and other American "classics," conventional artists in verse who are neither democrats nor aristocrats, but who constitute, so to speak, the poetical "middle classes." The fourth group embraces the anarchists and rebels, disciples of Poe and Whitman, who have listened to the strains of Baudelaire and of Swinburne, to whom passion is the ultimate secret of being and whose literary realm is a neighbor to what Europe calls "decadent" and "modern." In this group we find several immigrants and their immediate descendants who have liberated themselves from the bane of Puritanism. But even these poets are unable to silence in themselves the ethical curiosity characteristic of all our poets. . . . An important appendix to American poetry is furnished by the German American and the Yiddish poets. . . . Yiddish poetry, like the Yiddish press and the Yiddish theater, are growing in importance. Playhouses where jargon is supreme flourish where once the German theater stood in its zenith. Every literature written in an alien tongue in America, however, is a blossom doomed to extinction.

Elaborating his classification, Mr. Viereck then proceeds to group the poets according to his classification. Whitman he calls "a great poetic personality" but "not a great poet." "He is not as spontaneous or naïve as he pretends to be." His "Children of Adam" are "disquisitions on sex, not the authentic poetry of passion." There is, however, "enough greatness in him to force us upon our knees." He is democratic, speculative and pantheistic. His immediate followers are Horace Traubel "a moon circling about a planet into which he is doomed to fall back" and J. William Lloyd. The greatest poets in the spirit of Whitman, but emancipated from him in form, are Richard Hovey, Bliss Carman, and Edwin Markham. Closely related to this group are Charles G. D. Roberts, Edith Thomas, Arthur Upson, Richard Burton and Frederic Lawrence Knowles.

These poets are full of vitality. We find in them the same scientific spirit which the Germans and the English admire in their scholars, such as Haeckel, Darwin and Spencer. There is, especially, in this group, little of the pseudo-romanticism which makes a plaything of art. These poets transfer their love from the individual to all nature. They are not only poets, but servants of mankind and of the commonwealth. They seek the human, not like so many of their European brothers, the all-too-human

Poe and his followers sharply contrast with the Whitmanites. Their songs ring out of space, out of time. Poe, likewise, tends to mystical speculation. Mr. Viereck finds in him also, a tendency to intellectual pretence. "But as long as he remains in his own realm of rhythmic beauty, he is more infallible than the Pope."

There is a certain irony in the fact that, in spite of his aristocratic exclusiveness, Poe is more popular than Whitman. Every schoolboy knows at least three or four of Poe's poems by heart. It seems that the people take more delight in receiving their intellectual food out of the well-manicured hands of aristocracy than out of the brawny fist of labor. Poe has no pupils, but we can trace his spirit in a long line of intellectual aristocrats and esthetes who dwell apart from the world and whose only faith is in beauty. Thus George Santayana, as Jessie Rittenhouse observes in her remarkable study of "The Younger American Poets," might as well live in a monastery or on some lonely island as at Harvard in the Twentieth Century. Louise Imogen Guiney and Lizette Woodworth Reese are equally secluded from their time and surroundings. George E. Woodberry is cold and academic; he never finds his way to the heart. He is the philosopher and the teacher rather than the poet. He loves Beauty, but cannot seize her. William Vaughn Moody's poetry also leaves one with a curious sense of coldness and intellectual aloofness.

Cale Young Rice, Josephine Preston Peabody, Olive Tilford Dargan and many others are also grouped with these poets. The third group, the poetical "middle classes," include such names as Stedman, Gilder, Aldrich and Van Dyke. Mr. Viereck finds himself most in sympathy with the last group, the poets of lyric rebellion. Here he names "the first American decadent," Francis Saltus, Elsa Barker, Ella Wheeler Wilcox, Theodosia Garrison and many of those whose work appears in a little anthology recently published "The Younger Choir." Mr. Viereck further discusses the work of George Sterling, Herman Scheffauer, Leonard Van Noppen, Ludwig Lewisohn, Reginald Wright Kauffman, Sarah Teasdale, Witter Bynner, Herman Hagedorn, William Ellery Leonard, Charles Hanson Towne, etc.

These poets are the true heirs of Whitman and of Poe. They have inherited Poe's masterly tech-

nique and have added to it the element of passion which he lacks. From Whitman they have inherited his Americanism, which makes itself strongly felt in his fantastic and impressionistic pictures of American cities. They dare to approach the great problems which fascinated Whitman, and they possess at the same time a plastic sense absent in him. They are in touch with literary movements in Europe, but, unlike many modern Frenchmen and Germans, they select their themes not exclusively from the charmed circle of decadent art. They are the lyric insurgents.

PRISON EXPERIMENTS IN HUMANITY

OF the many conventional methods of dealing with prisoners, both in America and on the other side of the Atlantic, it cannot be said that any of them has been eminently successful, either from the reformatory or the preventative point of view. The International Prison Congress, which met at Washington in October of last year, while appreciating much that the members saw of American prisons, found that "in less than half of our States was there any real reformatory work done among prisoners," and reference was made to "the bitter inconsistency of our treatment of the rank and file of offenders," our very methods of dealing with them resulting in "breeding and confirming them as criminals." In one of our States—Vermont—there is at least one prison to which this scathing remark does not apply. Here, incredible as it may appear, the inmates are "treated like other human beings; they come and go almost as freely as the members of the jailer's own family;" and "they are made to feel that their imprisonment is designed to improve them as men, and to restore them to social life not only with full self-respect, but with the cordial respect of the community." The jail where this novel plan has been in operation for four years is that of Montpelier; and it must be confessed that the account of it which Mr. Morrison I. Swift contributes to the *Atlantic Monthly* contains several paragraphs calculated to make the old-time prison reformers stand aghast. For example, he says:

I spent the greater part of a day talking with the prisoners, first in company with the deputy sheriff and then alone, with full permission to discover opposition to the management if I could. In this way I made the personal acquaintance of the men. Later, on the main street of the city, whom should I meet but five or six of these very prisoners, walking along with smiling faces and a happy air, no more resembling the conventional criminal than did the merchants, workingmen, and lawyers with whom they mingled. Here was one of the keys to the mystery. No officer was about, keeping an eye on them; no peculiarity of clothing indicated who they were; they were free to walk off if they pleased and no one at the jail was worrying about them; and, best of all, the citizens of Montpelier, who knew perfectly well that inmates of the county

prison were at all times of the day and evening at large in their midst, were worrying no more about it than were the sheriff and his assistants themselves.

This remarkable innovation in prison practice was the outcome of a State law which reads as follows: "A male prisoner imprisoned in a county jail for being intoxicated, for a breach of the peace, or for being a tramp, may be required to perform not more than ten hours of manual labor within or without the walls of such county jail each day of such imprisonment, except on Sundays and holidays." At the time of the passage of this law there were,

on the one hand, hundreds of prisoners sitting idle in the county jails eating the State into debt, and many were being transported at great expense from all parts of the State to the House of Correction at Rutland; and on the other hand, young and impressionable offenders were being carried off to Rutland with more hardened men, there to receive an education in lawlessness from their experienced associates.

In his application of the new law, the sheriff of Washington county, in which Montpelier is situated, Mr. Frank H. Tracy, was actuated not merely by the desire to save money for the State, but also by a wish to regenerate the prisoners under his care. At first he could get no one to employ the jailmen, so he set them to cutting bushes and wood on his own farm, giving the State fifty cents a day for each and paying the men nothing. The experiment was a grim failure. "Dressed in distinguishing blue overalls and attended by guards, the prisoners did worse each day than the day before." It occurred to the sheriff that the men had no incentive to work: they got nothing out of it. He therefore asked one of them: "If you could have 75 cents for yourself from your work each day, what would you do?" "Try me," was the answer; and the next day this same prisoner went out and worked as well as any free man. This was the beginning of the system under which

every man in ordinary health earns the full laborer's pay of \$1.75 a day, of which seventy-five cents

is his, the sheriff acting as his banker and keeping the accumulation until he leaves the prison, when it is given to him in a lump sum.

The profits accruing to the State have steadily increased. At the close of the fourth year, 1910, they had reached \$6000, while the men's share was more than \$2600. Some of the prisoners were allowed to purchase necessities for their families out of their portion, thus lessening the deprivation of their wives and children due to their imprisonment.

As to the attitude of the working classes toward this form of prison labor Mr. Swift was assured by one of the trade-union leaders, "that there would not be the slightest objection on the part of the unions to any man with a trade exercising it, provided he were given union wages, as for doing common labor he is given the current rate."

The system has succeeded because of the trust reposed in the prisoners, who are made to feel that they are placed upon their honor. This is well illustrated by the following incident:

When a circus visited the city, Sheriff Tracy purchased tickets for as many of the prisoners as desired to go, and sent them off, unattended, to enjoy themselves. Eleven went, the others refusing because they preferred the money they would

earn by helping the farmers, who were then under pressure in the hayfields. It was an excellent chance to run away, for the circus continued till after dark; yet every one of them was back at the jail fifteen minutes after the tent closed; although among the eleven were men with the incentive of a long term to tempt them to escape.

The effect upon the prisoners of the new system can be readily imagined. As a result of their regular habits while under sentence, and owing mainly to their work in the open air, they leave the jail healthier than when they entered it. In many instances the man keeps right on at the same job. But if he desires to go elsewhere, he "has money in his pocket, and not as a shamefaced pauper either." Further, the providing of outdoor work will do more than anything else to combat successfully the ravages of consumption in the jails. Dr. J. B. Ransom of Clinton Prison, Dannemora, N. Y., is an authority for the assertion that "of the 5000 prisoners in New York State alone, one thousand are tubercular." Mr. Swift believes that prison life can be made so "decent, so humane, so upbuilding, interesting, and even inspiring," that for the average convict it will be superior to his existence in the outer world. Why should he run away from it, then?

ITALIAN EMIGRANTS EN ROUTE: A PROPOSED STEERAGE REFORM

THE national conscience of Italy is very much concerned of late with the emigration problem; but reform projects have until now received such inadequate financial support that the results have been somewhat discouraging. As to the aid to be given to the emigrants it is generally admitted that the home government owes its wandering poor preparation in the primary schools, surveillance of the emigration agencies, care on the voyage to North and South America; and in their new country, the establishment of employment offices, mutual aid societies, schools, libraries, etc. The preparatory aid in Italy and the guardian care in America give ample material for study, new projects and parliamentary debates, but the assistance on board the steamers seems to have been neglected, although the expenses of improvements would be light and the results immediate.

Signorina Cesarina Lupati, writing in the *Nuova Antologia*, studies the question of assisting the steerage passengers more effi-

ciently at a minimum cost to the Italian authorities. Under prevailing conditions there is on board every ship a royal commissioner—almost invariably a marine surgeon—sent to protect the rights of the emigrants from possible encroachments on the side of the company, to keep good order and superintend the embarking and landing. After sailing, the commissioner's duties are confined to aiding the ship doctor in promoting hygiene and maintaining discipline. The greater part of his day is free and he is able to amuse himself with the first-class passengers and entertain the ladies. For the purpose of protection against the company, the commissioner's presence would seem superfluous, as the first and second class have no need of championship, and the third even less for the good reason that they form the company's most numerous and constant clientèle, and when landed, the best advertising agents. It is regrettable that this excessive precaution is not expended on the lodging-houses at Naples and Genoa, where



A GANG-PLANK TYPE

the peasants from the interior often spend several days before sailing and arrive at the ship in a half-starved, dirty and dejected state. Several million lire have been waiting for years to be applied to the building of official hôtels to meet this crying need, but it was decided at the commission's last sitting that the idea was impracticable because the emigrants' stay in port is too short to justify the expenditure. The boarding-house harpies will continue to prepare the soil for epidemics and all the other ills to which the emigrants are especially exposed in their crowded quarters below deck.

Signorina Lupati complains that the commissioners do not enforce personal cleanliness, and replies to the objection that there are only six or eight bathrooms for over a thousand people, that by barrack discipline, every emigrant could at least have one bath on board. This reform could be begun by obligatory baths for mothers and children. As regards food the majority fare better on board than at home, but the chief hardship for the better class of emigrants is the dark-brown sacking and cover for the mattresses and the stifling dormitories to which the women and children are sent shortly after sunset. If the payment of twenty lire additional could secure coarse white sheets, it would be a welcome substitute for the "preferred" class at table which only encourages

departure from hardy abstemiousness. Decency would be furthered by the subdivision of the dormitories into four or six beds instead of the present huddled masses of hale and infirm side by side.

The emigrants pass the time that they are not violently ill in complete idleness, some half-somnolent, others gambling and quarreling, but rarely in conversation. Schools have been proposed, but they would prove of little use as the numbers are too great and reading or writing could not be taught in fifteen or twenty days, supposing the pupils always able to attend. But the example of a young second officer suggested to Signorina Lupati the best way to prepare the peasants for their new citizenship even at the eleventh hour. The officer was explaining the compass to an animated group, each of whom took it in his hands with child-like eagerness, and when the officer had gone, all the circle discussed his friendliness and their newly-acquired knowledge. Afterwards, when congratulated on his success, the young man answered that the emigrants were always interested and it pleased him to make up a little for the unfair difference between the second and third classes. Proceeding from this experience, Signorina Lupati proposes a series of conferences which should primarily appeal to the good common sense which is the liveliest faculty of the illiterate. These talks could be held every day in good weather, or if possible, twice a day, to two groups. Without formal pretensions, the instructor could carry out a short program on the necessity of hygiene, on obedience to the stewards and officers' vaccination, superstitions, temperance, respect for women, economy and honesty; personal inquiry as to motives of emigration, name, age, trade and destination; the new country, its population, important cities, customs, language, inhabitants and chief laws concerning foreigners—and finally, how Italy is represented in the new land, the consuls, the ambassador, newspapers, mutual aid and employment societies, the need for absolute respect of the laws of the hospitable country and the duty to Italy that every Italian should make himself respected and welcomed in the place where he is going to become a breadwinner if not a citizen.

As these talks with the emigrants would only take up two hours daily, the task could be entrusted to the commissioners, to whom the government could pay a slight additional salary. Their zeal could be insured by the institution of medals of honor or ad-

vancement by the Emigration Commission, which would first award recompense to the disinterested pioneers of the movement—the young officers of the merchant marine who have devoted their leisure moments to the mitigation of the chief ill—ignorance.

On the sad lack of dignity shown by the emigrants, Signorina Lupati observed that the principal cause was their ignorance of law except the atavistic law of blood-thirstiness—their hostility and suspicion of superiors engendered by the oppression of several generations. That the Western courts of justice do not take in consideration this hereditary burden, but condemn all Italians for each semi-irresponsible act of violence, is

shown by the labor riots in Louisiana and more recently in Brazil. Signorina Lupati closes her humane exposition of the wrongful neglect of her unfortunate countrymen by an appeal to Italy that at least the last days passed in the emigrant ships under her flag floating from the mast should bestow encouragement and strength for the unequal struggle.

When the ship touched the dock and the crowd, eager for deliverance, rushed to the gangway, I saw them—ragged, begrimed—in sullen violence or apathetic stupor unaware of their destiny—I saw them, ashamed for Italy for whom we toil, pray or die—Italy never to be truly glorious and great till she heeds the silent groan from her peasants' bitter lips.

LELEWEL, POLAND'S GREATEST HISTORIAN

POLES all over the world have been commemorating the fiftieth anniversary of the death of Joachim Lelewel, the titan of Polish learning, the celebrated professor, historian, and antiquarian, "one of the greatest of European men of letters in his day and generation, adviser to the leaders of European democracy on the eve of the great year of '48, and counsellor to European royalty." A sketch of Lelewel's career, achievements, and character appears in a recent number of the *Tygodnik Illustrowany* (the Illustrated Weekly) of Warsaw. The writer of this article, Arthur Sliwinski, tells us that from his earliest years, Lelewel showed "inclinations testifying to an almost universal intellect."

When he was thirteen years old he knew universal history thoroughly, wrote manuals of physics, collected folk songs, devoted himself eagerly to drawing and painting, studied the stars and their constellations, and took an interest in the deep of the sea and the bowels of the earth. In the Piarist boarding school he commenced historical studies designed on a large scale and at the same time translated from the French a Hebrew-Chaldean grammar. At the University of Wilno, which he entered in 1804, the youth's studies embraced mathematics, chemistry, physics, numismatics, Biblical chronology, the history of the Teutonic Knights, and the beginnings of Slavonic history. Although he worked passionately at these studies, he did not hold himself apart from the activities of his fellow-students, but took in them a most active part—arranging colloquies and lectures—and he set a good example to his colleagues with his work, dazzling them by his knowledge, and won their hearts by his upright character and the purity of his sentiments.

In the secret organizations of students at the University of Wilno which were so

largely responsible for the Polish uprising of 1831, Lelewel was one of the moving spirits. As to the objects of the associations, it has been pointed out that

The leading idea of the founders of these literary associations was to influence for good the youths with whom they came in contact at the university and in later life; by their own example and teaching to educate the youth in virtue, in love of study and work, and in patriotism, to the end that the Fatherland should in time have a disciplined and organized army of virtuous and useful citizens.

Of course, these societies soon incurred the enmity of the government at St. Petersburg, when Emperor Alexander I turned reactionary under influences from Berlin and Vienna. For their work in connection with the students' societies, four of the ablest professors at the University of Wilno, including Lelewel, were dismissed. This patriot soon became the "moral director" of the revolution against Russia that broke out on November 29, 1830. "That night at once raised Lelewel—who had spent his life half-buried in the dust of the library and was therefore a man of meditation rather than of action—into the public view as the coming man."

When the revolution was crushed, Lelewel, although condemned to death, managed to escape from the country. He immediately began to work for his beloved Fatherland by means of a propaganda directed from Paris.

He toiled feverishly. He composed proclamations, held conferences with statesmen, entered into relations with the most prominent workers of Europe of that time, and contributed to the formation of the new democratic ideology and the

new social system. Soon he became known, popular, and beloved in democratic Europe and the hated symbol of revolution in the eyes of all the governments. Even the liberal French Government could not bear the sight of him in Paris; and in March, 1833, it ordered him to leave the capital, while two months later it expelled him from France. To the learned Polish exile there were made creditable and advantageous proposals by various universities and learned societies; but Lelewel declined all offers and resolved to earn his livelihood by his pen in seclusion. He went to Brussels, where he spent twenty-eight years at incessant labor and in voluntary poverty. From his poor abode in Brussels Lelewel was dragged when seriously ill by his compatriots in France to Paris, where he died on May 29, 1861.

Lelewel was the author of a number of historical works of importance, but space will permit the printing here of the titles of only the most celebrated of his works on history, legislation, archaeology, numismatics and geography: "Poland in the Middle Ages" (1845-52), "A Parallel between Spain and Poland in the 15th, 16th, 17th and 18th Centuries," "History of Poland," "History of the Regeneration of Poland," "Foundations of Universal History," "Ancient History of India," "A Historical Essay on Polish Civil and Criminal Legislation," "Analysis of the Polish Constitutions of 1791, 1807 and



JOACHIM LELEWEL, THE POLISH HISTORIAN

1815," "The Civil Rights of the Polish Peasantry" (Brussels, 1849), "Monuments of the Language and Constitution of Poland" (Warsaw, 1824), "Numismatique du Moyen Age" (2 vols. 1835), "The Discoveries of the Carthaginians and Greeks" (Warsaw, 1829).

THE TWENTY-FIVE HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF BUDDHA

A VERY few, if any, in the active, material West, realize that the present year is the 2500th anniversary of what Orientals call Buddha's "attainment of enlightenment." There is some difference of opinion as to the exact date of this anniversary, but learned Hindus have generally agreed that it was the 12th of May last. Since that time there have been celebrations by Buddhists all over the world, and these commemorations will continue until the first of next year. Speaking of the importance of the anniversary, the editor of the *Modern Review*, of Calcutta, says:

On the 12th [of May], in the Sadharan Brahmo Samaj chapel, Calcutta, Babu Krishna Kumar Mitra and Pandit Sitanath Tattwabhushan spoke on the life and teachings of Buddha. Perhaps there were celebrations in other places, too; though nowhere in India did the occasion evoke that enthusiasm and receive that wide recognition of its greatness which it ought to have done. It is sad to reflect that though we often worship jackals, nay, even the merest vermin, we do not do homage to this lion among men. But so far as India is concerned there is no question that the greatest world-

force that she has given birth to has been Buddha. No other son of India has ever wielded a wider spiritual sway over mankind, no other has been so great a civilizer.

A number of articles from English authors appear in the British magazines on the same subject. In the *Hindustan Review*, Professor H. G. Rawlinson has a long analysis of Buddhists and their historical mission. After telling again the story of the great religious founder, the Professor derives from it four chief lessons: First, its intensely practical character. The ideal of the Buddhist religion is (1) to cleanse one's own heart, (2) to love and help our fellow-men. Second, its independence. "Man is man's own savior." Third, its splendid altruism, "love for all men, and the power of inward culture over the human heart. These are the keynotes of the Buddhist faith." Finally, the cosmopolitan character of that faith. Perhaps, he says, if ever the East finds unity and lasting peace, it may be under the great creed which expresses in so universal a form the mighty truths of Indian wisdom.

A GREAT ENGLISH EDITOR

IN the death of Sir Percy Bunting (on July 22) the English people, says Claudio Clear, writing in the *British Weekly* (London), have lost "one of the most amiable and accomplished men of the day, and one who under the gentlest exterior carried a firm purpose, bending all his energies toward the cause of righteousness, purity and truth."

For close on to thirty years Sir Percy Bunting was the real, active, working editor of the *Contemporary Review*. It has been said of him that his chief distinction in the conduct of the *Contemporary* was his ability to get from a staff of outside contributors many of the ablest articles that have ever appeared in British reviews. He contributed to the *Contemporary* for years before assuming editorial control of that publication, and his name is attached to many of the most skilful translations of rising Continental writers that appeared in its pages. Mr. Clear, in the article in the *British Weekly* already quoted from, says that the most distinguished characteristic of Sir Percy was his concentrated energy.

It is probably true that Sir Percy Bunting's enthusiasms, lasting and powerful as they were, took the form rather of a steady, quiet, concentrated energy than that of occasional explosions broken by lethargies. His benevolent and benignant countenance seemed to reflect accurately the man's spirit. It took some time to know Sir Percy Bunting's really distinguished acquirements. At Cambridge he distinguished himself in mathematics, and was a high wrangler. He read for the Law, and was admitted to the Bar in 1862. I was told years ago by one of the most eminent of Wesleyan solicitors that Sir Percy might easily have attained a high place at the Bar and gained a great practice. But he was drawn to exercise himself and to use his life in another way. He was an excellent musician. It was said in his lifetime that he might have been the very first of British composers had he chosen a musical career, and that he was second to nobody as an accompanist. He was also a skilled linguist, could speak French beautifully, and was fond of foreign travel. In any French or Belgian city he made the most delightful of companions with his historical lore and his keen appreciation of art. Certain forms of literature appeared to attract him greatly. In particular, he read much of Continental drama, and was one of the very first to detect the genius of Maeterlinck.

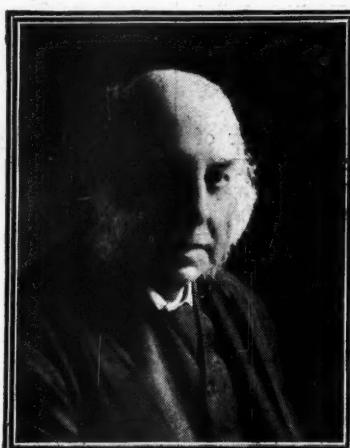
In his editorial round-up for August, Mr. W. T. Stead, in the English *Review of Reviews*, reminds us that Sir Percy undertook the editorship of the *Contemporary* in 1882, "out of loyalty to the Christian faith, in order to save so influential an organ of public opinion from being applied to the service of unbelief." Methodists will remember him with gratitude as one of the most staunch and influential supporters of the West London Mission, and as the loyal successor for some years of Mr. Price Hughes in the editorship of the *Methodist Times*. "But as friend and adviser Sir Percy exercised an unobtrusive influence which extended far beyond merely denominational circles."

Commenting on his death the London *Times* truly remarks that it would be hard to name a social reform movement at home or an oppressed nationality abroad which he did not help by voice or pen. In the

Social Purity movement he took a most active part, with his sister Mrs. Sheldon Amos, and with Mrs. Josephine Butler. In the National Vigilance Association he was for many years chairman of the executive committee. International peace was another object dear to his heart; but, to the surprise of some of his associates, he did not take the Boer side during the South African War.

A keen politician, he was active in the National Liberal Federation; but he never pushed himself forward, or he might perhaps have obtained more recognition from his party leaders than the knighthood which came to him unexpectedly three years ago. He contested East Islington at the General Election of 1892, but was defeated.

Under Sir Percy Bunting's editorship, the *Contemporary Review* has become one of the most important organs of public opinion in Great Britain. It is noted for the timeliness as well as the weight of its articles on current problems. An instance of this quality is afforded by Sir H. H. Johnston's contribution on "Racial Problems and the Congress of Races" in the August number of the *Contemporary*, which appeared just before the meeting of the Races Congress in London.



SIR PERCY BUNTING
(Editor of the *Contemporary Review*, 1882-1911)

ANATOLE FRANCE ON THE ORIGIN OF WOMEN'S RIGHTS

HE is a rash adversary who exposes his conviction to the relentless irony underlying the urbane methods of Anatole France. One by one the mob's fallacies, the burgher's hypocrisies, the aristocrat's superstitions and prejudice, the churchman's pride, the savant's vanity and the virtuous matron's cruelties and stupidities have been examined by the sage and have received their meed of gentle, destructive mockery. Marianne herself, vainest of nations, has been pilloried by her academician not only in her past, but her present and future, in the merciless "Isle of Penguins"; and in a great cycle of contemporary studies in politics, Monsieur France under the béret of M. Bergeret defended Dreyfus less loudly than Zola but for the enduring delight of those who browse in quiet pastures. Unflinchingly—perhaps a little maliciously—the disciple Émile Leroux asks Monsieur Bergeret-France his conception of the source of the suffragist turmoil; and the *Mercure de France* relates the episode for our edification.

If "women's rights" as a cause is a protest of weakness against strength, of the rights of woman opposed to the prerogatives of man—of the female versus the male—and if every social effect has an initial cause, what is the physiological, atavistic cause of this protest? "Is this a correct statement of your question?" asked Monsieur Bergeret of M. Leroux who assented to the learned precision of his elder.

"An explanation," M. Bergeret went on, "does not interest the reasoning powers nor does it excite reflection, nor is it easily retained if it be not curious, differing from accepted prejudices, and related at some point with the possibility of the phenomenon—truth."

If I question Genesis, in the first chapter, I stumble on verse 27 that has tormented many a rabbi and thinker. "God created man in His image. After His own image created He him. He created them male and female." The pronoun "them" in the plural referring to the noun in the singular "man" of the first part of the verse has made trouble for the curious for centuries."

Monsieur Bergeret quotes the interpretations put on the obscure pronoun by the Talmud, Pliny, Josephus, the heretic Amaueri in the XIIIth century, the ecstatic Antoinette Bourignon in the XVIIth—and with a sly thrust at the "unco' guid"—the profane version of Sadeur that horrified the doughty Dutch of the XVIth century. But this is far afield, and Monsieur Bergeret returns to the creation of Adam—and Lilith. "Cannot one with the exercise of a little imagination, identify the chaste Lilith—a superior being created a moment after Adam—with the original women's rights champion? Yes," continues M. Bergeret, noting the surprise and dismay of Monsieur Leroux, "there has been much gossip down the ages about



ANATOLE FRANCE AMONG THE MONUMENTS OF GRECIAN ARCHITECTURE

a mysterious and mythical Lilith of rabbinical invention, and most deplorable instincts and forwardness have been attributed to her. But there are two Liliths.

One immaculate, *liliale*, primeval—and another more dark than Tartary! The white Lilith, the second work of the Creator, man's immediate companion, was created a little after him although of the same clay—which allowed the Almighty to perfect His work, strengthening her brain and refining her form. This is she whom I elect to be our granddame of suffragism. It seems, if we can believe her admirers' biography of her, that our Lilith, so prudent, so superior, so chastely yielding—a pure intellectual type—bored her husband to desperation. His short-sighted and very material ideas were not in accord with the transcendentalism of his first wife. Of the disputes that wrecked the first marriage in Paradise we know little—not even the precise cause of the separation of the pair, but it seems certain that it was not Lilith who provoked the Fall. For she, irritated by Adam's silliness and disdaining longer to endure him, left him and went away—whither? The rabbi leaves her place of refuge in doubt. I presume she created all to herself somewhere on an inaccessible island in the company of birds and other inoffensive animals, a little Eden after her own heart. Perhaps she inspired from there—or suggested—the mentality of Hypatia, of the Amazons, of the Essenes, the Gnostics, the Fran-

ciscans, the Carmelites and the Antionette Bourignons—all of who with Antigone refuse to bow to man's yoke. Lilith having departed in disgust, Eve was created from Adam's rib, in order that, bone of his bone, she might not feel insupportably superior to him and should not philosophize over the causes and consequences of his actions. Eve was not the equal, but the cook of Adam, and we all know what came of it.

"This rabbinical subtlety," concludes the perfidious Monsieur Bergeret, "seems to me as ingenious and profound as a Hans Andersen fairy tale. I should never have thought the rabbi so clever—and this is all I know of women's rights in their atavistic origins. The leaders of suffragism may boast of an impeccable standard-bearer. The narrow-minded, the pedants and the bigots may care to discuss the authenticity of Lilith—but it is enough for me that the tale is pretty to believe it!" If the lady who impersonated Jeanne d'Arc in the suffragist pageant has read Monsieur Bergeret's monumental life of the heroine, it may be that she will intercede for Lilith's detractor with her dread peers. For ourselves we plead the immunity of lesser wights.

A GLIMPSE OF THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT IN FRANCE

AN article by Madame Elizabeth Renaud, one of the ablest of French women interested in public questions, a suffragist, and a socialist, appeared in a recent number of the *Rappel*, one of the great Parisian dailies.

Madame Renaud, at the sham elections for the suffragists of France to elect new deputies, which took place during the winter of 1910, in a short campaign of one week, without influence, without money, and without advertising of any sort, knew how to persuade almost 3000 men in the Department of Isere to renounce their electoral privilege in her favor. She obtained 2813 votes. This is what she says in the *Rappel*:

What we call feminism to-day is a century old struggle. It might be called one of the forms of the struggles of right against might. But as our intention is not to go back to the antediluvian epoch, we will simply say that the feminist movement in France, such as it is to-day, is, above all, the work of the women of the bourgeoisie, that is to say of the intellectual middle class, and proceeds directly from the Great French Revolution of 1789. During the Revolution this question was agitated by people of considerable importance, such as Condorcet and his wife, Sophie Grouchy. This lady was noted for her intelligence and her

beauty. She translated from the English "The Theory of Moral Sentiments" of Adam Smith. Everybody knows how highly Condorcet esteemed his wife. His high ideas for the happiness of humanity could not be conceived without woman "snatched from the night of ignorance in which superstition had kept her." Olympe de Gourges, who mixed actively in the Great Revolution, said: "Since women are allowed to mount the scaffold, they should also be allowed to mount the rostrum." And she did mount the scaffold. However, as to the rights of woman, nothing remains from that epoch. On that point as on many others the Revolution has left only hopes. The only things it really accomplished were the establishment of equal shares of inheritance between brothers and sisters, the abolition of perpetual religious vows, and greater facility in divorce. The Napoleonic Code, almost immediately after, took from woman the little she had received from the Revolution. Napoleon was antifeminist. He used the women of his surroundings to intrigue according to his political views; and from the mass of women he asked only soldiers for his wars. It was he who established the martial power, stupid and brutal as it still exists, the "communante des biens" (which means that husband and wife hold in common what belongs to each; but, while the husband can do whatever he likes with it, the wife cannot dispose of one cent without the signature of her husband), the forbidding of proof of fatherhood of illegitimate children; two sets of morals, one very strict for woman and the other

very indulgent for man. If woman has not protested against the iniquities of that Code it is because the press was not free. It was only thanks to the broad and generous ideas provoked by Saint-Simon that feminism was reborn in France. The Saint-Simoniens proclaimed the equality of man and woman. The most remarkable women that have contributed to the propagation of the Saint-Simonism were Flora Tristan, who died in 1864; Laura Grouville, who died in prison; Pauline Roland, whom Victor Hugo has exalted in the XIth poem of "Les Châtiments." Exiled by Napoleon III, she was brought back dying to France. She gave up her soul without having seen again her children; Jeanne de Rouen and Louise Julien; the latter also died in exile. Victor Hugo pronounced at her tomb these words which history has not ratified; "The eighteenth century has proclaimed the Rights of Man; the nineteenth will proclaim the Rights of Woman!" The Second Republic in France in 1848 was the third important date for the "feminist question." Women organized; groups were formed; feminist papers were launched. But the reaction of the Second Empire under Napoleon III stopped the movement. Silence replaced the agitation and the direction of the movement passed to the Anglo-Saxon nations.

Considering the present state of affairs, one wonders, continues this writer, why the progress of feminism is so rapid among the Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian nations and so slow in France. Here are several causes:

First: Because France is a Catholic country. The Church, through the numerous . . . means at her disposal, among others the confessional where all personal responsibility is done away with, holds woman in her hand through the woman, the child, and too often the man (although he will not acknowledge it) and keeps alive . . . prejudices.

Second: It is the spirit of the Roman Empire, which has influenced our customs and habits, which has presided over the creations of our laws. It is that spirit that has inspired the Napoleonic Code.

There is a third cause, the consequences of what precedes. It is a spirit of laughter and mockery when men speak of woman. They call it wit, "Gallic wit." But it prevents them from seriously examining a very grave question. Frenchmen in general ask only beauty and style in woman; they

leave her about two parts to play in life. That of courtesan and that of housewife.

In spite of all these causes of delay French women have not remained inactive. Numerous groups are continually working for the cause they love with success. Those groups are principally composed of bourgeoisie women; but a great number of socialist women are also among them. They are united for one and the same object, to obtain the vote for women. Although the Code has not been touched "there are reasons to hope for the triumph of feminism" in France.

First: The lowering of the interest rate on money invested in State security. The high cost of living is increasing continually. Money now brings only three per cent. Many women of the small bourgeoisie are obliged to work for the first time, and thousands of them enter professional careers. Then they begin to understand that the basis of human society is remunerative work. **Second:** The rapid evolution of great industry and commerce; machinery has created the "proletariat," that appendix of the machinery condemned to uncertainty of employment, to inevitable idleness, to misery. The wife, the daughter of the proletariat are consequently thrown into the social whirlpool as cheap tools. They enter all branches of capitalistic industry and trade; for 16,000 workingmen there are 6000 workingwomen. They compete with the man. But as their so-called inferiority is exploited with impudence they are forced to feel



MME. JUDITH GAUTIER: PAINTER, SCULPTOR,
MUSICIAN, ROMANCER AND SUFFRAGETTE
(In September, 1910, chosen first woman member
of the Goncourt Academy)

where the shoe pinches, and they organize themselves into syndicates in order to obtain equal salary for equal work. Their organization is still rudimentary; the syndicates of women do not mean much yet, but they are on the road to achievement. The shameless exploitation of woman reduced to a starvation wage wakes her from her age-long torpor, and those who reach economic independence feel the need of shaking off masculine tyranny, that is to say the very tyranny established by the Napoleonic Code. Woman understands that being subject to the same laws (which are infinitely more severe for her), having the same responsibilities as man, she must evidently have the same civil and political rights. She knows that thus only can she accomplish the new tasks imposed upon her by the new order of

things. Only equal rights will enable her to contribute to society not only her manual and intellectual work but also the initiative and moral influence which are her own and which are so much needed that one scarcely dare discuss it. Thus today a majority of French women seeing themselves forced by economic conditions to enter the battlefield and to fight for their bread and too

often for that of their children, will be content only when the hour of justice through equal right shall have struck. Who would dare to question the justice of feminist demands supported as they are by an army of distinguished men, deputies, senators, lawyers, journalists, men of letters, earnestly and actively using all their influence for the cause?

THE DOUKHOBORS AND THEIR FUTURE IN BRITISH COLUMBIA

THE Doukhobors, the peculiar Russian religious sect of peasants who emigrated to Canada in such large numbers in 1899, and of whom so much was heard a few years later on account of their conflict with the Dominion Government, form the theme of an article—by N. Syrkin, of New York—in *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* (Munich).

As Tolstoy is the highest expression of the national Russian mind, the Sect of Doukhobors represent in their Canadian exile at its intensest the ethical-religious feeling of the Russian folk-soul. Tchertkoff has written that the Doukhobors perhaps furnish the nearest approach to the practice of Christ's teachings that is to be met with in modern life, though the public attention has been drawn too exclusively to the nomadic pilgrimages of groups of the community and to ascetic eccentricities accompanying them.

Mr. Syrkin traces in this article the Doukhobors' stormy history and expatiates upon their strange beliefs. He says, among other things:

The nucleus of the Doukhobor faith is solely recorded in the reports sent in by the community in the 18th century to the Russian government, because after Pobirokin's idea their faith should be shown forth in their life alone. We read that the human body is for the soul only a temporary prison where it can have no other aim than the manifestation of God; that the first men had neither customs nor religious institutions but were illumined by the Holy Ghost, and that later by the power of evil creeds and laws arose. Under Catherine II and Paul the Doukhobors underwent severe persecutions, under Nicholas I in 1842 they were exiled to Tiflis in the Caucasus in the hope that they would die out. The Doukhobors, however, made friends with the wild hillmen, prospered agriculturally in spite of the desert and rocky foothills, and were strengthened to endure another persecution in 1888. Then Peter Wergin undertook the leadership of the community's practical and mystical life, prohibiting smoking, wine and meat. As a consequence of the schism of the "Small party" Wergin and his disciples were banished to Siberia. In 1895 the Doukhobors burnt their weapons publicly and refused to take part in the Government suppressions and military service. After ordering the maltreating of women and children and massacre of unresisting old men, the

Government expelled four thousand Doukhobors from their villages and drove them into the Grusinian villages where over a thousand died of privation. The men available for military service were sent for 18 years to the criminal battalion in Siberia. In 1898 through the combined efforts of Tolstoy and the Society of Friends in England, funds were raised and the Czar's permission obtained for the emigration of the sect to Cyprus, which being found unsuitable, in 1899 over eight thousand Doukhobors were granted lands by the Canadian Government in the province of Assiniboa near Yorktown and of Saskatchewan near Thunder Hill and Prince Albert.

In Canada their hope of perfect freedom was not to be realized. The Canadian Government required of them the registration of births and deaths, the observance of the marriage laws, and the registration of individual claims to "homesteads" and not of the community. The Doukhobors carried out again Tolstoy's theory of passive revolution, and gave up the use of all Government institutions, as the post, the railroads. A new ascetic group, inflamed by Wergin's letters from Siberia, held that holiness is to be sought in the condition of Adam and Eve, who through Christ were redeemed to Paradise. The holy people should without food or clothing advance God's kingdom on earth and attain the ultimate victory of spirit over the flesh. In autumn 1902, men, women and children set out on their pilgrimage—toward Winnipeg in search of the new Paradise. When November came, the Canadian police had to interfere for the women and children, and the men soon returned to their villages. A second pilgrimage was begun in spring, 1903, but came to an abrupt end through their practice of the tenet that clothing is the last bar to the absolute triumph of the spirit, and the spiritual man has no need to be ashamed of his body—shame being an error of civilization. The police again interfered and sent the pilgrims to prison for three months in Regina. The Doukhobors refused to obey the prison authorities and were severely punished.

Mr. Syrkin notes that on the arrival of Peter Wergin in Canada the return to the traditional Doukhoborism and the introduction of modern agricultural methods began. Wergin disowned the pilgrimages and disdained of clothing and organized the communities into a central union. The patriarchal life is strictly adhered to and work is more the contented occupation of energy than the curse of bread earned in the sweat



THE DOUKHOBORS AT WORK ON THEIR CANADIAN FARMS

of the brow. Everything is left to the good will and judgment of the individual, the administration is at a nominal cost as the elders work. Annually 1000 adults are sent as day laborers for the railways, and after the deduction of their living expenses they return the greater part of their wage to the common treasury. One of the largest and best brick making plants in Canada has been founded by the Doukhobors at Yorktown, and the communities have paid their debts and even eighteen months after their arrival in Canada, wrote to the English Quakers to cease pecuniary gifts and apply them to others more needy.

But even under Wergin the Doukhobors have not found peace. True to their belief in common property they have finally refused to become Canadian subjects and consequently have lost the greater part of their homesteads of about the value of two million dollars, retaining only about fifteen acres for each member of a community. The pilgrimages in search of the new Paradise have begun again and the distressing feature of the nude fanatics has been of regrettable wandering. The latest development is the grandeur and niggardliness, heroism and decision to emigrate to British Columbia, self-sufficiency, *Weltschmerz* and isolation, where the communities already own three sublime metaphysics and dry rationalism are thousand acres. In the conviction of the linked intimately in their history. Have worthlessness of worldly aims and the holiness of their economical success, the Doukhobors are as intent as of old on their spiritual salvation and parched with the thirst for martyrdom. Doukhoborism rests of this earth?

on the deep, inner experience of the soul in search of absolute truth. God, reason, life, love, Christ and man are for the Doukhobor interchangeable terms. Because he seeks an exalted, ecstatic experience, and not culture, the Doukhobor is clearer on what man should not do than what he should, he is non-creative—only attaining eminence where the individual whose conscience is his sole guide has to battle with exterior forces. At most the Doukhobors have only an intuitive conception of the great aims for which modern culture strives. Their aid could only be as the proverbial wisdom "out of the mouths of babes." In resistance alone are they manly and heroic—in their stubborn seeking for perfection in isolation from the world, society and temptations of wealth and the body are they an example and light to a materialistic age. In their future lies the possibility as with all primitive and natural phenomena of decay and dispersal, but of extraordinary evolution as well. The history of Doukhoborism in Canada is not yet at an end, for its essence is struggle and wandering. Error and experience of truth, prominence. The latest development is the grandeur and niggardliness, heroism and decision to emigrate to British Columbia, self-sufficiency, *Weltschmerz* and isolation, where the communities already own three sublime metaphysics and dry rationalism are thousand acres. In the conviction of the linked intimately in their history. Have they now the creative faculty to acquire a new mission, or are they destined to dwindle away in the arid strife against sin and the storming of Heaven's gates for a holiness not thirst for martyrdom. Doukhoborism rests of this earth?

SOME GERMAN PIONEERS IN THE UNITED STATES

RUDOLF CRONAU, the German author, of New York, writing in the *Gartenlaube*, Leipsic, describes with patriotic fervor the many-sided efforts and achievements of his countrymen in the United States, showing how much they have contributed to the up-building, liberation, and preservation of this nation. He singles out names that are specially noteworthy and points to the cultural benefits that the German spirit has bestowed upon the Union; winding up by recalling to our minds the notable fact that the German-Americans have in the new century formed a union which has assumed large proportions. In fact as well as figuratively, he contends, the Germans in America have occupied the foreposts fully three hundred years, and have fought valiantly and successfully for German culture and for the advancement of mankind in general.

Without their energetic coöperation we should assuredly be a hundred years behind our present stage of development. The repulsive institution of slavery would likely be still in existence, and one of the greatest acquisitions, freedom of the press, not yet attained. Without the Germans the great union of the States might not have been consummated, the "far West" be yet unsettled. Any one that desires proof of these comprehensive claims should study the past of the Germans in America. It is rich in memories of high-spirited characters who with infinite pains, sacrifice, and disappointments labored for man's progress. Among the heroes that lent such luster to the colonial period we find Germans of the right stamp: There was Jacob Leisler, who, in the Eastern colonies, was the first to awaken a feeling of common interests; the noble-minded jurist, Pastorius, under whose lead a small body of German Mennonites formed the first real German settlement in America, at Germantown. And it was there that Christof Sauer published the first German paper, the first German books, and a German Bible, on this continent.

History records that in many of the colonies the Germans formed the advance-guard of civilization, engaging in bloody combats with the Indians and the French invaders from Canada. And when the colonies revolted against England, the German settlers were among the first to espouse the cause of freedom, and distinguished themselves by many deeds of valor. A few months ago a monument was erected in Philadelphia to Pastor Muhlenberg, the hero who threw off his gown in the pulpit, displaying his martial uniform. Towering obelisks mark the graves of the valiant Herkimer and the German peasants of the Mohawk Valley, who at the murderous battle at Oriskany foiled the masterly plans of the British and thus averted the gravest danger that threatened the side of freedom. And last December a monument was dedicated at Washington to Baron von Steuben, who as the organizer of the American army doubtless furnished

the most valuable assistance given by Europeans to the colonies in their desperate struggle. An impartial study of that conflict leads one to doubt whether without the aid of those high-souled men and of the Germans in America that great fight for liberty, that so stirred the whole world, would have proved successful. One must likewise ask oneself whether it would have been possible to preserve the Union in the Civil War without the aid of the 200,000 German-Americans who fought under the Union flag.

Shoulder to shoulder with the Anglo-Americans the Germans penetrated the virgin wilds of the New World, built their log cabins in the vast forests and prairies, and after centuries of painful effort converted the waste places into fields of plenty. "The prosperity of entire States is essentially due to the Germans." As agriculturists they have been eminently successful everywhere. The writer in passing last summer through regions of New York and Pennsylvania settled by natives of the Palatinate 200 years ago, thought he had never beheld better managed estates—model farms in every respect, with contented dwellers, whose comfortable circumstances are due to their ceaseless energy and intelligent management. In the various branches of industrial activity, too, we find German enterprise and influence.

As the Germans were the first to introduce printing in America, they likewise introduced typefoundries, iron mills, glass and chemical factories, powder mills, armories, industries in leather goods, watches, and goldware. That the German-Americans are not lacking in foresight and daring is evidenced by the great number of names which occupy a conspicuous place in American life-to-day—among them such as Astor, Havemeyer, Frick, Rockefeller, Wanamaker. In highly developed technique and engineering, too, the German-Americans have been pioneers. The world is indebted to Roebling for the first use of wire cable in bridges of unusual proportions. His suspension bridges across the Niagara, Ohio, and East rivers secure him a lasting place as a genius of the first order. German engineers furnished the plans for numerous viaducts, railway bridges, and tunnels that are among the notable sites of this country. German architects designed many of the finest structures in the New World; thus, the Library of Congress, which as a model of construction and, for richness of the materials used, is unrivaled.

The stimulus imparted to American spiritual life by the Germans cannot be estimated, continues this writer. There is scarcely a higher seat of learning in the United States to-day that is not imbued with German lore or that does not reflect German influence in its

teaching and methods; and many of them have eminent Germans on their staffs. It is a notable fact that there are over 750 German papers and periodicals published in the United States; and we may well speak of a German-American literature, "since it can boast of many a work that would do credit to the literature of any people."

What a potent influence the Germans have exerted upon the Americans through the art of music is universally recognized.

In 1849 the German singing societies of Ohio and Indiana held the first German *Gesangfest* in this country and united to form the Deutscher Sängerbund von Nord-Amerika. Since then the German song has spread over the whole broad land. In art, likewise, the Germans have held their own. Painters like Lentze, Bierstadt, Mosler, Melchers, Marr, Schreyvogel; sculptors like Sibbel, Bitter, Weinmann, Niehaus will take an honorable place in the history of American art.

In an appreciation of German influence in the United States we must not omit the many charitable foundations due to German-Americanism.

Foremost among these are the *Deutsche Gesellschaften* found in numerous towns, organized for the aid and protection of immigrants. The Legal Aid Societies—of which the "Legal Aid Society of New York City" has since its foundation helped far more than 300,000 people without means, of all nationalities, to secure justice—may also be mentioned. Nearly all cities with a considerable Ger-

man population have also German hospitals, old people's homes, orphanages libraries and other such institutions.

These instances form but a tithe of the cultural achievements of the Germans in the United States. To estimate their full value is impossible, since far the greater part has been accomplished by a quiet, inconspicuous activity. The magnitude of their efforts is the more remarkable when we consider that until quite recently they formed no united body with definite aims.

With the advent of the new century a significant change in that respect took place. On the 6th of October, 1901, there assembled in the hall of the venerable Deutsche Gesellschaft von Pennsylvania a small body of men in order to organize the Deutschamerikanischer Nationalbund—not to form a "State within a State" but to combine the mighty forces residing in German-Americanism and use them for the benefit of their new home, to spread and fortify the German spirit and German culture. That these aims answered the ardent longings of countless Germans in America is shown by the astonishing growth of the organization. Under the lead of its energetic president, Dr. Hexamer, it has spread into almost every State of the Union, and, with its two million members, is probably, indeed, the largest German organization in the world. Various activities of a common nature have, more or less directly, resulted from this national union—such as the Germanistic societies in New York, Boston, Chicago, etc.; the Germanic Museum at Harvard, the exchange professorships between Germany and this country.

"THE MYSTERY OF SAINT SEBASTIAN" IN THE FRENCH AND ITALIAN REVIEWS

IN the "Acta Sanctorum" St. Ambrose writes that Sebastian, chief of the first cohort and friend to Diocletian, encouraged his fellow Christians, Marcus and Marcellinus, to resist temptations to recant, that he healed the sick, converted a magician, and refusing Diocletian's proffered grace, found martyrdom at the hands of his own archers.

On this basis Gabriele d'Annunzio has built his epic drama of the struggle for ascendancy of paganism and Christianity—and this struggle seen through the violet and saffron rosace of a Gothic nave. For the poet has chosen the mould of the medieval French mystery play for his vision of Rome of the third century satiated with materialism and prey to all the magic and mystical cults of the Orient. And to the service of France he has brought the faith that is his inheritance as countryman of the Assisian, his vast erudition, his powers of

rhythm and eloquence, his past mastery of the deeper poetry that invades the province of music.

The prologue, that Pierre Gringoire might have recited before Louis XI sets forth that the master "has preferred the dulcet speech of France in that it be pleasant and common to all people," and that the five acts are as five stained glass windows wrought by a journeyman to win the rights of city in the shadow of Notre Dame.

M. Gustave Cohen hails with generous enthusiasm D'Annunzio's "Saint Sebastian" in the *Mercure de France*; and remarks in substance:

In the year 1496, the city of Chalon, to celebrate their deliverance from the pest, gave a Mystery play of "Monsieur Saint Sebastian." After four centuries, to preserve us from the pest of low and ugly themes, a "Florentine in exile" offers to our meditations a serene, lofty and sovereign "Martyr-



MANTEGNA'S "ST. SEBASTIAN"

(Recently added to the collections of the Louvre Museum)

dom" in the form of the old mysteries. But it must be admitted that there is not one scene of the old plays that is equal to any of D'Annunzio's frescos. Where in them can one find an equal intensity to the supplications of the mother to Marcus and Marcellinus that they desist from their martyrdom? It is beautiful as the antique tragedy—as Medea's lamentations before she slays her children. I recall Euripides—not the mystery rhymesters. Unknown to them too the grandeur of the symbol of the Woman Ill of Fever—She who has borne the burden of human sorrow and sin through her successive incarnations as temptress of the angel Arédrôs, to Magdalene at the Sepulchre, where the dread lover returns to brand with his torch her breast as a shrine for the Holy Shroud. Since the Holy Grail that haunted the Celtic imagination—since the Divine Comedy—Perceval and Dante—we have had nothing to equal this formidable creation. It has been cited as an impiety that D'Annunzio describes the sacred dance of Sebastian before the Emperor as a representation of the Passion. But this is a grave error, the scene recalls the most ancient form of liturgical drama in which the three Marys wept in the church around the Sepulchre represented by a wooden cross. Born at the foot of the altar as they were, the religious dramas contained germs of beauty but choked by the weeds of such

coarseness that to-day no public would support them. D'Annunzio has spared us the grotesque interventions of demons, the infamous pleasantries of the "villain," his wife and the tavern keeper, and the horrible jests of the executioners. He has called his acts "Mansions" and made anachronism his law in costumes, but his drama is too logically constructed, the symbols are too sublime, the historical vision too ample to continue the tradition of the old mystery—their somewhat heavy simplicity and ingenuous length. The great Italian has betrayed the genre, but ennobled it. In future our literature has to count with masterpiece more as well as another great poet. In mind not unlike ours, his classical culture is at war with his childhood's religious ardors. He adores pagan beauty with a mystic rapture that is Christian, his very faith is moulded of the antique Latin clay. His work stirs in us this profound conflict, internal antagonism to which we—as he—are heirs.

In the *Illustrazione Italiana*, Signor Diego Angeli gives his impressions of the première at the Châtelet in May.

The Mystery moves in a vague atmosphere of medievalism that reminds me of the rococo of Verlaine's "Fêtes Galantes." Both give a profound sensation of an entire period, but if they add to our perception all that makes the superiority of a work of art to a mere reconstruction, they are as far from the truth as a Rossetti picture from a Botticelli or an elegant and perverse Aubrey Beardsley from a satirical scene of Hogarth. And each approaches its predecessor admirably. As an example: The early Christians adopted some of the Oriental rites and advanced on the dangerous path of magic horrors. Now all this is marvelously expressed in Sebastian's hesitation on the threshold of the Magic Chamber in the II act. But it is our sentiment—totally unknown to a Gallic poet of the XIV century, whose conception of antiquity did not go beyond his own world, and whose Madonna was necessarily "*Madame la Sainte Vierge*" and Dionigius, "*le bon Messir Saint Denys*." Another notable fact anten the orthodoxy of the Mystery is that the true triumph is celebrated by paganism—the ancient creed triumphs in the scene of the burning coals in the first act—so little mystical, in the apparition of the Zodiac in the second and above all in the third act which from Diocletian's appeal to his beautiful archer till the suffocation by wreaths and flowers of the Holy Youth amid the chorus of worshippers of Adonis is one magnificent outburst of praise to Beauty and Life.

Leon Bakst, the designer of the scenery and costumes is one of the group of Russian painters who with Benoist have so radically modified decorative art. Together with Claude Debussy's music, Bakst is doubly potent. Both belong to that school of restless analysis made up of timidities and daring that is represented annually by the Salon D'Automne. D'Annunzio speaks of stained glass in the prologue but rather I should say the decorations resemble four frescos painted by Gustave Moreau who might have copied in the first a legend of Pinturicchio, in the second a Henri Blès or Maître des Moulins, in the third a dispute by Filippino Lippi and in the fourth a Garden of Paradise with fountains and kneeling ancestors by Benozzo Gozzoli.

WHO DISCOVERED ANESTHESIA?

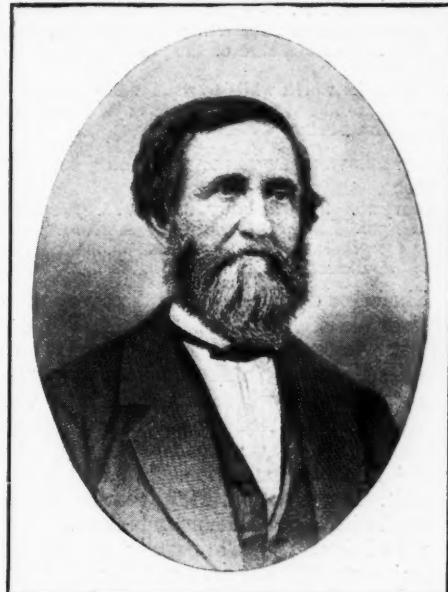
IT is related of the late King Edward of England that when, after his operation for perityphlitis, he regained consciousness, he asked, "Who discovered anesthesia?" The reply given was, "Dr. Crawford Long, your Majesty." According to Miss Rosa Pendleton Chiles, writing in the August *Munsey's*, the English have for years acknowledged Dr. Long's rightful claim to the honor. Dr. George Foy, of Dublin, author of "Anesthetics, Ancient and Modern," more than a year ago, wrote to Dr. Long's daughter as follows:

Of one great fact I am sure, to wit: the principal anesthetists of London recognize that your father's claim to the discovery of general anesthesia is well founded. And in their hospital classes they so inform their students. No writing or talking can now affect his position. It has been accepted, and is acknowledged by writers and teachers.

And Dr. J. Marion Sims, one of our leading surgeons, says:

Vaccination and anesthesia are the greatest boons ever conferred by science on humanity. England gave us one; America, the other. England recognized the labors of Jenner; America should recognize the labors of Long.

As long ago as 1800 Sir Humphry Davy discovered that unconsciousness could be caused by nitrous oxide gas, and recommended its use in surgery; but no one paid any attention to his suggestion. Eighteen years later Faraday proved the anesthetic effects of sulfuric ether; and his report received the endorsement of the American physicians Godman (1822), Jackson (1833), Wood, and Bache (1834). But, as Miss Chiles remarks, "all such observations were considered 'scientific curiosities,' and the world was almost as ignorant of the nature, possibilities, and practical demonstration of anesthesia in 1842, when Dr. Long started a new era in surgery, as it was in the days of Adam." Just why Dr. Long's claim to the discovery came to be disputed, is clearly explained in the article under notice. The rules of the medical profession require a physician "to establish his claim as a discoverer by independent verification; to use his discovery for the benefit of his patients as soon as he is satisfied of safety in its employment; and at such time as he is assured by exhaustive demonstration of the safety with which less experienced operators may use it, to give it to the profession as a whole." The only thing that "has cheated Dr. Craw-



CRAWFORD WILLIAMSON LONG, THE GEORGIA PHYSICIAN WHO FIRST USED ETHER TO PRODUCE ANESTHESIA DURING A SURGICAL OPERATION

ford Williamson Long of Georgia, of many of the honors due him was the criticism, in the days of the so-called 'ether controversy,' that he did not give his work to the profession early enough."

Although Long throughout his course at the University of Pennsylvania and in the early years of his practice in Jefferson, Georgia, was anxious to discover something that would alleviate pain in surgery, it was by accident that he finally found it. To quote Miss Chiles:

In the first half of the last century, sulfuric ether was used in New England, and in certain sections of the South, to furnish the principal entertainment at private social gatherings. These curious affairs were called "ether frolics." Young people inhaled the gas for its properties as an excitant, and the strange antics of those under its influence caused merriment for the rest of the party.

Dr. Long, when he was about twenty-six years old, inhaled it with other young people, . . . and . . . afterward, it occurred to him that the safe agency for painless surgery had been found. After considering the matter carefully, on the 30th of March, 1842, he successfully performed the first authenticated operation without pain to the subject. This fact has never been disputed.

James M. Venable, a young man who had inhaled ether at "ether frolics," consented to have a tumor removed while under the influence of the gas. . . . Two months later the same man had another tumor removed with equal success.

There were four witnesses of the first operation, and all of them bore testimony to its complete success. They were young men studying in Dr. Long's office. . . . The preceptor and his pupils, behind closed doors, anesthetized one another time and again to make sure of the process and its results.

It may be worth while to reprint the bill which Dr. Long rendered to Venable, as copied from the physician's books:

JAMES VENABLE TO DR. C. W. LONG, DR.

1842

January 28.	Sulfuric ether.....	\$.25
March 30.	Ether and exsecting tumor....	2.00
May 13.	Sulfuric ether.....	.25
June 6.	Exsecting tumor.....	2.00

The other claimants to the discovery were Horace Wells, a dentist of Hartford; William T. G. Morton, a dentist of Boston; and Charles T. Jackson, a distinguished physician and chemist, in whose house Morton was studying. Wells had conceived the idea as early as 1840 that nitrous oxide might be useful in tooth extractions, but had never tried it. It was not until 1844 that he experimented with it, and then upon himself. Morton had been Wells's partner before his experiments with the gas; and its usefulness was doubted by him. In 1846 Jackson pro-

posed that Morton should try it, and the latter did so with complete success. Both Morton and Jackson succeeded in obtaining recognition from the French Academy, and a proposal was made to secure from the United States Government a grant of \$100,000 in recognition of the discovery. The controversy went on for five years before Long could be persuaded to take part in it. When he did so, Jackson relinquished his claim in favor of Long's. The curious fact of the affair is that all of Long's rivals came to dramatic ends. Wells, overcome by the rejection of his claims by the French Academy, committed suicide; Morton died from congestion of the brain induced by excitement over an article seeking to deprive him of his honors; and Jackson, like Wells, became insane from the contention over the disputed honor, and died in an asylum. Long himself, "in the fullness of service, was stricken with apoplexy at the bedside of a patient." The Medical Society of Georgia last year erected a monument to Dr. Long; and the Georgia Legislature by unanimous vote resolved that his statue should have a place in Statuary Hall, at Washington.

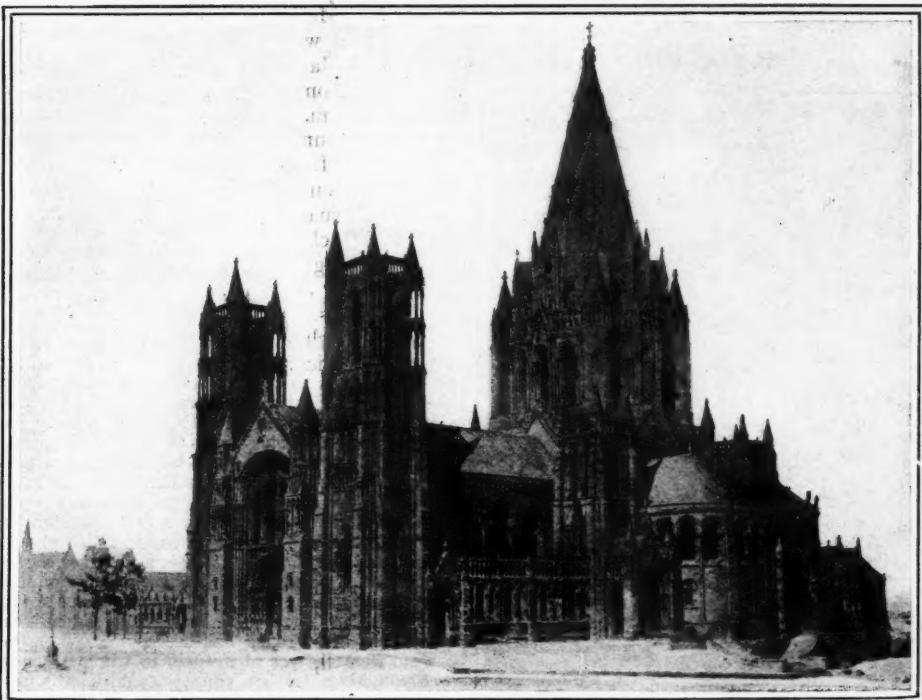
ANGLICANISM IN ARCHITECTURE

WITH the structural completion of the choir of the Cathedral of St. John the Divine at New York, a change was made in the architectural control of the edifice which has given rise to considerable controversy, the architect who for twenty years has had charge of the work having been superseded by a consulting architect. An unsigned article in the *Architectural Record* characterizes this supersession as "an harsh divorce between the work and the architect who has given twenty years of his life to it"; it also asserts that the "consulting architect's own works show an entire lack of sympathy with what has thus far been done on Morningside Heights." Ignoring the personal and professional aspects of the controversy, the article in question discusses the architectural aspects, which it considers "important and interesting enough to call for some comment." Such as it is, the edifice "has been generally acclaimed as an impressive and most interesting building, an architectural success," the only adverse public criticism that it has encountered having been that it is not "English Gothic." On this point the *Architectural Record* writer says:

The strictures upon the Cathedral of St. John the Divine for not being pure English Gothic are irrelevant and nugatory unless and until the premise that "it ought to be" pure English Gothic is established. . . . The sentiment of "Anglicanism" is surely worth keeping in the architecture of an Episcopal cathedral, unless and until it comes into conflict with newer conceptions, ecclesiastical or architectural, with, let us say, such a conception as the need to a cathedral of a great "auditorium," a preaching-place in which can be assembled as large a congregation as can be brought within the range of a human voice, with, let us say, such a conception as the modern tile arch, which to clothe in the forms of the groined vault of the old Gothic ministers were to indulge in a fiction or a masquerade. Whether there has been in things ecclesiastical such an evolution as we know to have occurred in things mechanical is a question not for the architect, but for the church. . . . Yet in the case of this cathedral, the architects were left entirely to their own devices. They were under no sort of restriction or limitation, except that the interior length of the building should not exceed 520 feet.

About one hundred plans were submitted in competition; and the article under review emphasizes the fact that

the diocesan authorities, by the selection of a plan, distinctly committed themselves and the diocese against the strict example of English Gothic which it is now insisted that the cathedral



From the Architectural Record

**COMPETITIVE DESIGN (PERSPECTIVE) FOR THE CATHEDRAL OF ST. JOHN THE DIVINE, NEW YORK,
AS SUBMITTED BY THE ARCHITECTS, MESSRS. HEINS AND LA FARGE**

should furnish, and which it is clearly out of the question that the existing cathedral can be made to furnish without a process of demolition equal in extent to the work of edification.

The winning design was described at the time of competition as "a domical church in a Gothic shell"; and a study of the plan and sections of the cathedral indicates domes as "a more appropriate and expressive covering of it than the sloping Gothic roof." As originally planned, each bay of the nave was to have its own cupola, while the choir was to be covered with a continuous tunnel vault.

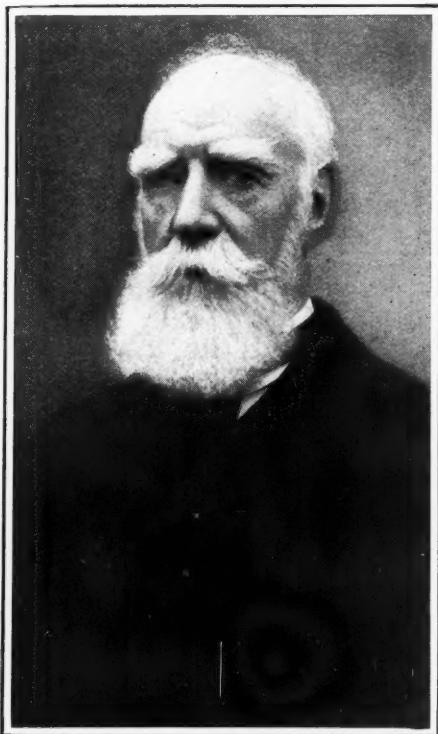
The changes made during the progress of the work have been in the direction of Gothic, in the direction of Anglicanism. To the desire to Anglicize as much as might be may probably be attributed, at least in part, the change from the original tunnel vault of the choir to two bays of groined vaulting, with the substitution of clustered piers, expressive of the superstructure thus substituted, for the smooth pillars which would have been the logical supports of the original vault, and would have conformed more perfectly than the Gothic pier to the magnificent semicircle of the huge, smooth, unmodelled columns that support the semidome of the apse, the finest feature of the interior, in which there is nothing of historical Gothic at all. . . . The purpose has been attained of

furnishing an enormous auditorium at the crossing as well as of providing a most impressive terminal feature; and it is a purpose which historical English Gothic furnishes no available precedents for attaining, excepting only the octagon of Ely.

The churchmen who are now anxious that the work should be continued in a more strictly Anglican fashion are reminded that "the diocese has for these twenty years been committed against a strictly English Gothic cathedral," and, further, that "all the contributions to the erection of the cathedral have been obtained for the execution of a design which was deliberately preferred to the Gothic designs, its competitors."

We are told that the choir of the Cathedral as it stands, is less than one-half of the ultimate structure contemplated, in length and in breadth, and "so much less than one-half in area and cubical contents that in spite of its impressive actual dimensions, it might almost be ascribed as a fragment only of the mighty minister of which it is to be an integral part, and shows scarcely the beginnings of the intended decoration, sculptural or pictorial."

STRATHCONA, COMPOUNDED OF CECIL RHODES AND SAMUEL SMILES



LORD STRATHCONA IN HIS NINETIETH YEAR

IT is not on record that Lord Strathcona has ever made a joke. Nor has he yet lived to be a hundred. But there is every probability that he will do one of these things, and he may even do the other. With these trifling exceptions, says W. T. Stead, in the English *Review of Reviews*, Lord Strathcona has most of the distinctions that can fall to the lot of a British subject.

In the life of many a statesman his political career seems more or less marked out from the beginning. In Lord Strathcona's case this was not so. His life may be said to have been divided into three parts.

His youth, as a clerk in the Hudson's Bay Company, was spent among Indians in the dreary frozen wilderness; his manhood, in promoting railway companies and building up a nation; and his old age as a statesman and an Imperial force. In the first years of Lord Strathcona's life in Canada there was no Dominion, nor were the provinces united. Neither the French Canadians nor the English-speaking people in Upper Canada were friendly toward England. The revenues of the country were small, there were no railways across the continent, and the Hudson's Bay Company

was in the hands of trappers and traders. In 1838 Donald Smith entered this region. For ten years he remained in the St. Lawrence ports, doing the work of an ordinary clerk, with intervals of boating, fishing and shooting.

The most dramatic chapter in the life of Donald Smith—afterwards to become Lord Strathcona—was the Red River Rebellion, the Riel Rebellion as it is often called.

For some years a number of malcontents, residing at Red River, had been trying to stir up an agitation so as to separate their settlement from that of the Hudson's Bay Company. The population in the district of Assiniboina had rapidly increased and was imperilling the hold of the company. The company's rule, which hitherto had been wise and practical, was denounced as arbitrary. Better representation was demanded, and, by dint of much uproar and noise, considerable sympathy was obtained from outside. To understand fully the character of this Red River settlement it must be explained that the population was considerably mixed. In all there were about 12,000 souls. There were Europeans, Canadians, Americans and French half-breeds. Most of the priests were natives of France, to whom Canada was almost a foreign country. With a mixed population like this it was difficult to deal, and when, on November 9, 1869, the deed was signed in London, whereby the company surrendered its interests in the Northwest to the Crown, with reservations for the company, rebellion broke out. The leader was Louis Riel, a half-breed described as "a short, stout man with a large head, a square-cut, massive forehead overhung by a mass of long and thickly clustering hair, and marked with well-cut eyebrows—altogether a remarkable-looking face."

The new governor, Macdougall, was not equal to the task of dealing with a man like Riel. This half-breed leader seized Fort Garry, made the editor of the local paper prisoner, and was issuing proclamations to the inhabitants. So matters went on, until sixty of Riel's enemies were confined in Fort Garry, and the insurgents' flag hoisted.

Away in Montreal, Donald Smith was slowly but surely studying the position. Understanding the characters of both Macdougall and Riel, he saw how hopeless the situation was. Understanding them better than they understood themselves, he realized that what was needed was a man who knew the inner mind of the Company well, and could clear its character of the imputations cast upon it. He was the man—he felt it, and although the journey involved grave personal risk, he resolved to go. Leaving all valuable documents behind (for he feared treachery from Riel) he set out, and, as was expected, was practically made prisoner by Riel.

The first meeting was a memorable one. In the open air, with the thermometer 20 degrees

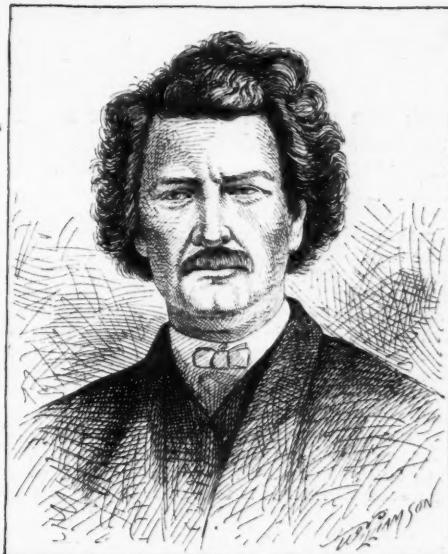
below zero, a cruel, biting wind penetrating through the warmest clothing, there they stood, men of all nationalities and ages. On the small raised platform were the four men most concerned in the rebellion—Riel, O'Donoghue, De Salaberry (a man beloved by thousands), and Donald Smith. At first the meeting was wholly with Riel, who cleverly got himself appointed French interpreter. But when things were at their worst, and men of the opposite sides glared at each other with hate in their eyes, Smith rose to speak. His facts, his practical wisdom, and, above all, his reasonableness, had their effect upon the swaying multitude. If he did not gain much that day, at any rate he averted bloodshed. The next day things went better. The proposition that representatives should be chosen from both sides was accepted, and when Riel agreed to disband the men at Fort Garry all classes felt that the worst was over. However, matters were not so easily arranged. Riel broke his word, and after the murder of a young man called Scott, Mr. Smith, feeling that only the power of the British Army could do any good, left Fort Garry for Ottawa.

Although the general inhabitants of the Red River Settlement were appeased, thanks to their confidence in Mr. Smith, Riel was not yet brought to reason, and in the summer of 1870, two men, afterwards famous, came out with Sir Garnet Wolseley. They were Captain (afterwards General) Buller and Lieutenant (afterwards General) Butler.

The people, disgusted with the tyranny of the "New Napoleon," as they called Riel, wished for another administration, and received the newcomers with every sign of joy. Victory was easy. At the approach of the "red coats" Riel, with his co-conspirators, fled, and, crossing the ferry, took up a position on the shores of St. Boniface. All was now quiet in the Settlement, the purchase price, £300,000, had been paid, and the territory transferred to Canada. Pending the arrival of the new Governor, the Hon. Adams G. Archibald, Colonel Wolseley called upon Mr. Donald A. Smith to administer affairs. This appointment gave great satisfaction.

Canadian unity, the establishment of the Dominion, was the next ambition of Mr. Smith, and a large factor he became in bringing it about. To become a nation Canada must have railways, and with this end in view, after becoming Member for Winnipeg in the Provincial Assembly, he used all his ingenuity and energy. In 1871 he was elected to the Dominion House as Member for Selkirk, by the almost unanimous vote of the community. His one great effort was the construction of railways and he used all his energies to the accomplishment of this end. To him is due, perhaps more than to any other one man the building of the Canadian Pacific.

The expenses were enormous, and both Mr. Smith and his colleague, Mr. Stephen, were obliged



LOUIS RIEL, THE HALF-BREED CANADIAN WHO LED
THE WESTERN REBELLION FORTY YEARS AGO

to pledge their private fortune in order that the work could go on. In Montreal to-day there are many stories in circulation of the meetings which used to be held at which the Board of Directors sat with blank faces, discussing ways and means. At one of these meetings Mr. Smith is alleged to have said: "It's clear we want money. Well, we can't raise it amongst ourselves. Let us come back tomorrow and report progress." When the Board met the next day each member reported failure until it came to Mr. Smith's turn. "I've raised another million; it will carry us on for a bit. When it is spent we will raise some more." And so the work went on. On November 7th, 1885, five and a half years before its time, the railway was finished, and people began to realize how much one man had done by pluck, energy, and determination.

In 1886, after the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway, Mr. Smith received a knighthood of the Order of St. Michael and St. George. But he needed not a title to make himself known. As his riches increased so did his philanthropy. In 1889 came the highest honor of all in his commercial life—his appointment as Governor to the Hudson's Bay Company. He had gone through every stage, from clerk to Governor of the company's business, and proved himself faithful in all. Further honors were in store for him. At the age of seventy-seven he was offered, and accepted, the post of High Commissioner for the Dominion, and the same year he became a Peer of the Realm. In the latter part of August, 1897, he was gazetted Baron Strathcona and Mount Royal of Glencoe, Argyll-

shire, and Montreal, Canada. In 1900 his intrepid energy caused him to send out a mounted troop of 600 men to South Africa when the Boer War broke out, needless to say at his own cost. In reviewing the life of Lord Strathcona one is struck by the simple manner in which he has always undertaken patriotic responsibility.

Instinctively one thinks of another great man whose life was also given to the Empire in one of its younger States. Cecil Rhodes and Donald Smith both left their homeland young. Both were endowed with brains, energy, and determination. Both took their lives in their hands, without attaching any great importance to the risk. Just as Donald Smith, with a handful of followers, entered Fort Garry to negotiate with a band of rebels so Rhodes faced the Matabele chiefs and made known his terms to them. Except that the climatic conditions were different, both men's difficulties were much alike. When men have grievances it does not matter whether it is under the blazing sun of

Africa or the snowy sky of Canada; human nature is always the same, and if in either case tact or courage had failed the lives of Donald Smith and Cecil Rhodes would probably have ended there and then.

It is often asked, what is the secret of a man's success? In Lord Strathcona's case perhaps it has been the cultivation of two great qualities: perseverance and a habit of doing his work with regularity and ease.

In Lord Strathcona's bearing there is control and a sort of lofty prudence expressed by the intrepid look in his eyes. He carries with him the atmosphere that surrounds all men who have dwelt long in solitudes. His favorite attitude when he converses is a strong folding of the arms and a downward, pondering look. His hair is now snow-white; his skin is fresh, and about him there is a pleasant vigor that is wonderful for his years. This is from a personal description by one who has known him, and we may take leave of Lord Strathcona with it, and with the reflection that so long as Britain produces Wardens of the Marches of this type—half Samuel Smiles, half Cecil Rhodes—all will be well with her.

CANADA'S PROPOSED RETALIATORY COPYRIGHT BILL

IT is a somewhat curious coincidence that at the very time it has before it the consideration of commercial reciprocity with the United States, Canada should be proposing to enact a copyright bill "avowedly to retaliate against the United States and, by making wholesale piracy possible, to force the Washington Government to become a signatory to the Berne Convention." Citing as "very well worth reading from a Canadian point of view" the article on "Twenty Years of International Copyright," by Prof. Brander Matthews, which appeared in the June issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, Mr. Frank Wise in the *University Magazine* (Toronto) addresses to his countrymen in the Dominion some common-sense advice respecting the unwisdom of the new bill. He considers it "inconceivable that the [Canadian] Government, which at the present moment is seeking friendly relations with the United States and reciprocity in natural products, should, at the same time, be creating a condition which will bring down upon it the wrath of the whole American press, advertising to the world the fact that Canada is deliberately taking a retrograde step in civilization." The Typographical Union secured the incorporation in the International Copyright act of 1891 the "manufacturing clause," which grants the protection of copyright only to works composed and

printed in the United States. In Canada, writes Mr. Wise,

the new Copyright act proposes to include a "manufacturing clause" in so far as printing is concerned, which the minister publicly avows is retaliatory upon the United States. If the States are to be punished—and who shall say they do not deserve it—probably the most appropriate weapon will be a rod of their own pickling. And whereas in time past America had on the surface everything to gain by pirating from England, now she has everything to lose by having her literary product pirated by Canada.

Mr. Wise reminds his countrymen that the world has learned a few lessons in honesty, or at least in "honesty being the best policy," in the last few years. It has learned that disposing of forest lands to political heelers, for instance, has resulted in denuding the country of pulp-wood, and Canada has seen the result in the United States and has established her conservation policy which provides for sowing as well as reaping. It should not therefore be a matter of mere conjecture as to whether Canada shall stunt the growth of her own native literature by copying the fatal mistake made by the Americans when they yielded to the temptation to steal, and strangled their own literature to such an extent that, in what seems to have been the most prolific period of writing among English-speaking peoples, or rather during the period of literary awakening as exemplified by the Victorian writers, only a few American authors forced their way to the front.

One of the worst results of piracy in the book world is that good works are badly

printed on poor paper and issued in a worse binding; and these cheap editions often contain matter not written by the author whose name they bear. As a notable instance of this, Mr. Wise cites Mr. Bryce's "The American Commonwealth," of which a pirated "new edition," containing "new chapters" impudently inserted without any intimation that they were not from Mr. Bryce's pen, was issued at the same time that the authorized second edition appeared.

It must be remembered that the reading public can only perform a certain amount of reading, the limit being set by time and inclination. If, therefore, to quote Mr. Wise further,

the reader for economical reasons limits his purchases to the cheapest, he will not only degrade

his taste, but put such a restraint on both author and publisher in his own country that we shall stand in as great danger of repressing our potential Canadian literature as the Americans did of strangling their own prior to 1891. As a matter of fact our danger as Canadians is infinitely greater, since, from our close proximity to our neighbors and the smallness of our population as compared with that of the States, we are much more likely to be Americanized than the Americans were to be Anglicized by British writers 3000 miles away. That the community of readers' interests is much closer between Canada and the United States than between us and England is attested by the fact that some millions of copies of American magazines come into Canada yearly as against a few hundred thousand copies from England. Our habits, customs, modes of living, our climate, our youth as a nation even, so closely approximate parallel conditions to the south of us that, putting aside the question of political absorption, our literature is in greater danger than was ever that of America.

HOW TRUSTS ARE CONTROLLED IN CANADA

ACCORDING to Prof. James E. Boyle, of the University of North Dakota, we need not go far in order to learn something in the matter of trust-control. In a thoughtful paper in the *Twentieth Century* (Boston), he writes:

The Canadian Parliament a year ago last May enacted a law for the regulation of "trusts" which it is wise for us now to compare with our Sherman law. Our rugged northern neighbors are ahead of us in banking and labor legislation, and now, for a third time, we behold them pass us in scientific law-making. This new legislation, known as the Combines Investigation Act, challenges the earnest attention of the industrial world.

The full title of the new act is "An Act to provide for the Investigation of Combines, Monopolies, Trusts, and Mergers," and its methods of procedure are as follow:

Six persons, British subjects, may, on applying to any High Court judge, secure an inquiry. The application, which must be in writing, must be very specific as to abuses.

If the judge is satisfied that a *prima facie* case has been made out, he is required to order an inquiry by a board.

On the receipt of the order from the judge, the Minister of Labor forthwith proceeds to appoint a board, impartiality being secured in the manner of selection. Thus, one member is appointed on the recommendation of the persons who signed the original application for investigation; another, on the recommendation of the persons named in the order as being parties to the alleged combine; and the third, on the joint recommendation of the other two members of the board, or, if no such recommendation be made, then the appointment is to be made by the Minister of Labor.

The expense of the two preliminary steps, as well as of all subsequent ones, is borne by the Government. Ten thousand dollars were appropriated for the administration of the act during the first year. The board has ample powers as to the summoning of witnesses and the production of books and papers. A "people's lawyer" may be appointed to the case, if considered necessary. The investigation cannot be sidetracked by legal technicalities, as in the United States Section 2 provides:

In deciding any question that may affect the scope or extent of the investigation, the board shall consider what is required to make the investigation as thorough and complete as the public interest demands.

Publicity is effected through the printing of the findings in the *Canada Gazette* and in the public press. If, after a hearing in which both sides take part, abuses and evils are found to exist, at least six remedies are offered:

- (1) Pressure of an intelligently formed public opinion.
- (2) If the trust enjoys protective tariff advantages, this tariff may be removed.
- (3) If the combine is aided by patent rights, the patent may be revoked.
- (4) The guilty combine which ignores the findings and continues to offend is guilty of an indictable offense and liable to a penalty of \$1,000 per day.
- (5) The findings of the Board may lead to cancellation of licenses under the Inland Revenue act, or
- (6) to the withdrawal of subsidies.

In comparing the United States with Canada in this matter, Professor Boyle points out that we each have a criminal code for

dealing with monopolies. We have also a Bureau of Corporations, but the latter can only secure information. The information must be acted upon either by public opinion or by the Department of Justice; and the latter can only proceed under the Federal Constitution as interpreted by the Supreme Court. Under this Constitution, the property rights of a corporation are "impregnable, and beyond the reach of the legislature, the executive, and the voters themselves." All the great combines in the United States have been formed since the enactment of the Sherman law; and Professor Boyle contrasts this law with the Canadian act as to actual intent and purpose:

The Sherman law aims to preserve *competition*. The Canadian act aims to preserve a *fair price*. The Sherman law (applying to interstate commerce, of course) says that "every contract, combination . . . or conspiracy in restraint of trade" is illegal.

The Canadian act says nothing is illegal. It considers combines a blessing, a natural, inevitable and desirable product of economic evolution.

The Sherman law says every person who monopolizes trade is a criminal.

The Canadian act says the monopolist shall divide his profits with the producers and consumers.

The Sherman law says certain courts may issue injunctions preventing restraint of trade and compelling competition.

The Canadian act accepts monopoly as the natural and desirable condition of many industries.

The Sherman law provides for forfeiture of any goods contaminated by a "contract in restraint of trade," and for a fine and imprisonment for a monopolist.

The Canadian act offers a remedy suited to the merits of the case.

The Sherman law offers the victim of oppressive combines a law suit in a Federal Court, if he have the requisite funds and the simple, childlike faith to undertake it. If he ultimately wins, "he shall recover three-fold the damages by him sustained, and the cost of the suit, including a reasonable attorney's fee."

The Canadian act offers the victim a simple, swift and thorough investigation and a speedy, adequate remedy, without expense to himself.

We shall do well to watch "carefully and sympathetically" the workings of Canada's attempt at trust-control.

A NEW DIAMOND FIELD IN GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA

FOR some time past the principal use of German Southwest Africa to the mother-country has seemed to outsiders to be a training school for their military men in barbarous warfare, but now at last it seems this territory is beginning to "make good" in an economic sense, according to a recent lecture by Prof. Dr. Scheibe before the Royal Agricultural High School in Berlin.

An area one and a half times the size of Germany, for the most part a steppe of naked rocks with a thin and partial covering of wind-blown dust and sand, becoming mountainous toward the interior, and inhabited by but 10,000 whites and 60,000 natives, the lecturer rightly estimates that its future usefulness and denser population must depend on the discovery of mineral wealth. Of this it seems a good beginning has been made. Following close upon the heels of the discovery of rich copper-lead deposits, which are now in operation, comes the discovery of diamonds in the sands extending along the coast some 300 miles and inland a more or less indefinite distance of from six to twelve miles, from Conception Bay on the north to Roast Beef island on the

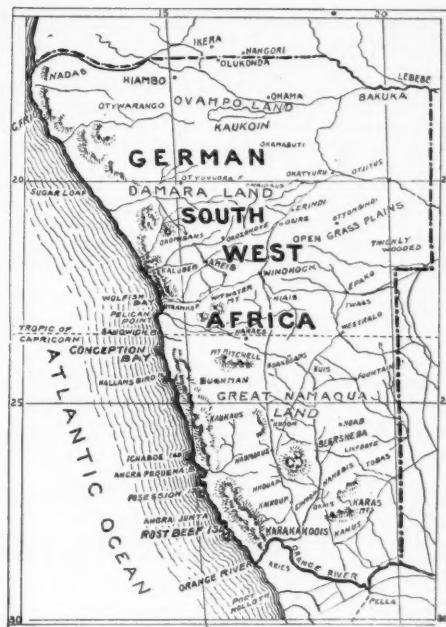
south, and up to the present time especially developed in the neighborhood of Luderitz.

The rock foundation of this region consists of ancient crystalline rocks, principally of schists, quartzite and crystalline limestone in thin belts running north and south, much tilted and interrupted by great masses of granite, which reaches the coast at Arch Rock, near which is a great mass of intrusive rock forming a high mountain intersected by many dark basaltic dikes. On this foundation rest sedimentary rocks of Tertiary age, sandstone and conglomerate, which evidently are the products of erosion from the older rocks, and show that the entire district was at that time beneath the sea. These deposits in turn have been partly destroyed by waves and wind and have fallen to pieces, forming a sandy or gravelly covering of greater or less depth, and of very variable coarseness, and it is this loose covering that has been found to contain the diamonds.

A peculiarity, however, of the loose sand and gravel is that it contains pebbles of chalcedony, a variety of quartz, which occurs partly as yellow, brown, green or black jasper, partly as yellow and red transparent

chalcedony, and partly as banded agate, and which is not found in the original rocks from which the loose covering is derived. It is supposed that the diamonds and the erratic chalcedony may have originated and been brought into the district from outside through the same process. It is found, as might be expected, that the wind has acted to concentrate the diamonds in places, but these places or pockets are very variable, so that it cannot be predicted that they will be found at all or in any definite quantity in any particular place. This makes an estimate of the average contents of the deposits, even of the most general character, very difficult and vague. Around Luderitz Bay good places may contain three to five diamonds, averaging one-seventh carat in weight to the cubic meter of sand, while the rich surface where the light material has been blown away by the wind often contains as many as twenty to forty such diamonds per cubic meter. Places in the Pomona district showed ten or more larger diamonds per square meter surface, which reckoned by volume would mean several hundred to the cubic meter. The size, although very variable, is on the average small, much smaller than that of the Transvaal fields, and yet the individual stones are of better quality. The exploitation is still largely by hand-washing, but machines are increasingly being employed. The output rose in 1910 to 800,000 carats of a value of about \$5,500,000, about one-fifth to one-sixth of that of the South African mines. The total contents of the field are valued at about \$125,000,000.

While nothing is known of the origin of



MAP SHOWING THE LOCATION OF THE NEW DIAMOND FIELDS IN SOUTHWEST AFRICA

the diamonds, they are supposed to have come from some area of "blue ground," which is their characteristic matrix in South African mines, and which was located either in the interior or at some point along the coast. From this area, which has now disappeared, the diamonds were probably washed by rivers or waves and carried to

their present location.

ITALY'S SOCIAL CANCER—THE CAMORRA

IT has been well said that the value of a criticism or an opinion on any subject depends upon the amount of knowledge of such subject possessed by the person uttering it. From this viewpoint, no other writer could be considered so well qualified to tell "The Truth About the Camorra" as Signor Ernesto Serao, the well-known Neapolitan novelist and author of "The Head of the Camorra," whose articles, under the first-cited caption, have recently attracted so much attention in the *Outlook*. In an "Introduction" to the narrative, Baron Bernato Quaranta di San Severino states that Signor Serao "has devoted many years of his life to a close study of this criminal association, and

enjoys in Italy the reputation of having a profound knowledge of the entire subject."

EVOLUTION OF THE CAMORRA

The baneful forerunners and ancestors of the Neapolitan Camorristi were the Spanish *gamuri*, or brigands of the Sierras, who either exacted from their victims the money they had with them or shared in the profits of the business that had caused the travelers to undertake their journeys. Transplanted to the kingdom of the two Sicilies, "this abominable vegetation, with the vigor of a tropical flora, spread its roots through the muddy subsoil, powerfully fostered by the mis-

government and pusillanimity of the men then in power."

In the Italian offspring of the Iberian Camorra in Naples and Sicily the Spanish organization of brigandage has kept intact the innermost nature of its baneful existence. In the Naples Camorra, as in the Spanish brigandage, the essence and program of the society is organized extortion by means of intimidation and the brute force of the stronger. The most common form of extortion is imposition on the weak, in many cases fixed by a rigid proportional system or imposition on the proceeds of crime.

ITS CODE OF LAWS

As in other secret associations, there is in the Camorra a code of laws regulating the relations of the various ranks of its members.

There is a *capo 'ntrine*—a sectional head—and a *capo intesta*, or head-in-chief of the Camorra, a kind of president of the confederation of all the twelve sections into which Naples is divided and which are presided over by the *capo 'ntrini*.

Before 1860, real Camorrista disdained to use firearms. They considered that true courage could not be tested by such weapons. The dagger and the knife are the favorite arms whereby distinction are to be gained. The most severe discipline is maintained in the rank and file of the Camorra. Several social oaths are taken by the members, the chief of which is that known as the *Omertà*. The word signifies "humility," and "means the passive submission of all the members to the supreme will of their superiors, and to the internal law of not revealing to anyone, not even to one's brothers, mother, or wife, the moves, enterprises, and engagements of the society; never to denounce, not even at one's deathbed, any wrong suffered through a fellow associate, never to reveal even one's own murderer, never to have recourse to the aid of the law, but to avenge the offense with one's own hands, if possible, after having first laid the complaint before the natural judges or the Camorra tribunal. There is a High Tribunal as well as a Low Tribunal. The judges may meet anywhere, may condemn free Camorrista or convicts condemned to cellular confinement. In prison the decisions of the judges are conveyed by tapings on the partitions of the cells, made by fellow prisoners who clean out the cells.

The high-class Camorrist despises cowardly and vulgar crimes. He does not steal, does not commit extortions, but causes others to steal, to extort, so long as he gets the *sbruffo*—percentage due to him as "right of Camorra."

COÖPERATION WITH THE POLICE

The Camorra is frequently appealed to by the police to assist in recovering stolen property. Thus in 1901 the Baroness Nicotera, wife of the well-known statesman, lost her watch. The police failed to find it; but the loss having been reported to the Camorra, the watch was "mysteriously laid upon the Baroness's table with a note of apology." The gold snuffbox stolen from Count Michele Pironti was returned through the same agency.

The traditional kiss of investiture is a very old custom in the Camorra. Anyone who is victorious over his adversary has a right to the kiss on both cheeks. The kiss on the forehead signifies promotion to a higher degree. This is sometimes given in a public restaurant, by the whole of the members of a party.

HOW THE CAMORRIST IS MADE

In *La Revue* (Paris), M. Maurice Lauzel gives a description of how a Camorrist is made. Apprenticeship begins at the age of three.

The child is taught to beg and to steal such things as handkerchiefs, etc., and in a few years he has every chance of getting into prison.

But to become a Camorrist many serious proofs of courage are necessary—proofs of bravery, skill in the use of the knife. The candidate must pass through several grades. First he is a *garzone di mala vita*, but as soon as he gives satisfaction in this capacity by his bravery he may aspire to the next and higher grade of *picciutto e sgarro*. He may now offer to kill someone designated by the Camorra; but if there is no case of vengeance in hand, he is tested in a sort of dagger duel with a member of the society. If he gets wounded, he has the right to two more duels; but if he is wounded in all three he is not admitted to the Camorra.

Even now, should he be successful, he is only approaching the promised land. He cannot become a proper Camorrist till he has proved his valor in a great many other ways. At last, however, a clever assassination procures him the envied title, and the great day arrives when the association of bandits delivers to him his letters of nobility. It is an impressive ceremony. He has to swear to the solemn Camorrista seated round a table that he will never cease to be faithful to them, that he will continue to be the enemy of the authorities and of the police, and that he will never denounce the Camorrista whatever happens, but will love them above everyone else. This oath of fidelity and secrecy is taken on crossed knives. Henceforth the member enjoys all the privileges of a Camorrist. He practices the Camorrist virtues of discretion and humility.

Now he seeks infamous adventures which will earn him the esteem of his superiors and merit a

fine future in a penitentiary colony. If he manages to escape the carabineers and the police, he will bring up his family in Camorrist fashion—parents, children, brothers, sisters, nephews, all cohabiting in one room. In this atmosphere of immorality and dirt the father will not fail to teach his children what he himself had to learn, for Camorristism is an hereditary evil. If he goes to prison he will be sure to meet many of his friends there. Finally, the good Camorrist attains the threshold of an honored old age—in the Camorra. He will never want for anything. Poor he will never be, because he participates in the gains of the band. Infirm and old, he is sure of succor, and when he dies his family will not be deserted.

WHAT IS NECESSARY TO STAMP OUT THE CAMORRA

The murder, two years ago, of the Italian-American detective, Petrosino, and the trial still in progress of thirty-six Camorristi for

murder, an account of which was given in the REVIEW of May last, have directed the attention of the Western world anew to this disgusting society. Should all the prisoners be condemned, Signor Serao does not think it would suffice to suppress the Camorra. He says: "You can imprison, segregate, disperse, terrify the Camorristi; they will reconstitute themselves, they will pour out new germs, will rear fresh adepts in the prisons." The whole trouble lies in the existence of the hovel, "the disgusting Neapolitan hovel, abominable nursery of evil, pestiferous place of moral degradation." Not until Naples has razed the hovel to the ground can any really successful war be waged on Italy's social cancer, and such a war would be a matter of international interest.

THE INFLUENCE OF CHRISTIAN MISSIONS IN JAPAN—A JAPANESE VIEW

"WHO shall decide when doctors disagree?" When Baron Kikuchi was asked, at the close of a lecture delivered by him February 1, 1910, in Carnegie Hall, New York, on "The Intellectual and Moral Development of New Japan," whether Japanese civilization had been influenced by Christian missions, he promptly replied in the negative, adding, however, the qualification, "Of course, they have given inspiration to young Japanese students, through the characters of such men as Drs. Hebron and Harris, Fulbeck, Brown, etc." The Baron is President of Kyoto University, was some time Minister of Education in Japan, and might be supposed to be in a position to know. Yet now comes Dr. Sekiji Nishiyama (in the *Open Court*), who practically says that Baron Kikuchi, in intimating that the only beneficial influence of Christian missionaries on Japan has resulted from the high character of some of their number, is, as the man in the street would put it, "way off." The Doctor frankly says: "I am not a convert to Christianity, nor am I any too favorable to Christians; yet I have no prejudice against the Christian movement in Japan." He desires to answer "in a somewhat more affirmative way" the international question put to the Baron; and in doing so he contrasts the antithetical view of the latter with certain historical events in Japan. He writes:

The Japanese people were under the charm of Buddhism for more than ten centuries. Three

centuries ago Tokugawa Shogun, the Governor of Japan, realizing the undesirable influence exerted on the Japanese people by the Jesuit missionaries who had been brought by the Dutch and Portuguese to Japan in 1548, issued an order prohibiting the practice of Christianity.

Notwithstanding this edict, enthusiastic Japanese Christians did not change their belief back to Buddhism, but carried their pictures and images of Christ to the Japanese temple, and prayed to Christ there. The Government, ignorant of this fact, and supposing the people were praying to a Japanese god, concluded that a wonderful change had taken place in the belief of these Christian converts. This fact proves how deeply religious the Japanese are as a nation, in spite of the opinion of American critics who say that they are irreligious. Statistics report thirty thousand Japanese Christians.

Forty years ago there were scarcely any schools for girls in Japan. The national conviction was that girls were not worth the trouble of educating. Christian missionaries saw the difficulty.

They discovered the national neglect of the education of Japanese women, and started at once to establish a school for girls. By their efforts several schools were opened in different parts of Japan, and the Japanese girls who have been educated in these Christian schools have proved to our people the good results of the education of woman.

Finally the Japanese Government recognized the great importance of educating the girls and in 1890 the number of public high schools for girls was increased to seven! The government reports for 1903 stated that the number of schools for girls had increased to 155 and the total number of their students was 35,546, under the direction of 1094 women teachers. It should never be forgotten that, by word and deed, by work and inspiration, the Christian missionary gave a strong impetus to

Japan: in causing our people to recognize the vital necessity of the education of women.

As the result of this advance in education, a number of Japanese women are now physicians; many are trained musicians and artists; and Japanese girls are even entering the business world as clerks. These facts, says Dr. Sekiji Nishiyama, "could not even have been dreamed of in the visions of a poet twenty years ago, and prove how rapidly the Japanese people adopt, assimilate and actualize a good idea." And he has no hesitation in asserting that the good results of the education of Japanese girls, following the enthusi-

astic efforts of Christian missionaries, marked two great steps in the progress of Japan:

(1) an unchangeable belief in the desirability and necessity of the education of women, and (2) woman's position in Japanese society has been improved, because the Japanese girls who received an education showed that there was an undreamed-of capacity for companionship and efficiency in Japanese women.

The Doctor considers that the Japanese ought fully to appreciate the debt they owe to Christian missionaries in this respect, and that "this great contribution should be written in full in the history of the New Japanese civilization."

THE NEXT GENERATION OF GERMAN HOUSE-WIVES—A FORECAST

YEARS ago, as the wave of commercial prosperity swept over Germany, a mournful critic bade German husbands beware of taking their wives to Paris or the Riviera lest they learn to imitate their sisters of other nations in extravagance and pleasure-seeking, and Germany lose her proud pre-eminence in frugality and domesticity.

Germany is more cosmopolitan now but we are relieved to hear that there are hopes of the homely Biedermeier qualities surviving even in the coming generation. The new German girl—the 1911 summer girl—is strangely similar to her Parisian model—if we are to believe Herr Paul Barchan in the *Neue Rundschau*—and yet under her frills of Chantilly there is no such matter. For our part we believe she has only stooped to conquer and her triumph is manifest in the interest her new departure in elegance has inspired. The satisfaction of her lord and master is apparent though he rightly rejoices to find her meek and dutiful still.

On the promenade, at the tea shops, at the Grünwald race track, and wherever one goes to see and be seen in Berlin, for some time past, we have all met a type of girl that we hardly knew where to place in the first joy of discovery. Are they foreigners or cosmopolitan *Berlinerinnen*? Race is betrayed nowadays most speedily in bearing and clothes. When we have overheard a few words and are at rest on the subject of nationality—"made in Germany!"—we ask again, Are these girls of good family who want to seem adventurous or are they young ladies who cling to their good birth as a saving trump? Or in Berlin too is the boundary line being effaced? She is about nineteen and has got over the ignorant superiority and pert combativeness of fifteen. The linden's green and her own budding time have brought her out to coquet with adventure and novelty, but be assured

—in her eyes pleads the deathless yearning for the wedding-ring! Under an impish, forward, turned up on one side, pot hat that seems to suggest and idealize the head so full of feather-light, feather-free fancies—are the bangs, the mane, the pony fringe—or whatever you like to call the fascinating stupid hair on her brow that makes the brow simpler, narrower, more femininely inexperienced and irresponsible. Woman has rarely invented such an apologetic mask for her perfidious lack of logic as this amusingly trimmed, thin idiotic fringe of curls. Half-boyish and half-doll-like—shaking off all responsibility—woman's chief aim for ages! What a comment on the cry for emancipation!

Her shoes are borrowed from the Parisienne, with short, pointed American toes, of suède and very tight. And this shoe has something of the charm of the bang in the capriciousness of the step, the queer diminutiveness of it. It is scarcely the much abused German foot now that was so solid and firm, created to follow her liege lord without unseemly tripping—the foot to which her foreign sisters so eagerly, gladly drew attention. And through practice in the hobble skirt she has nearly got over her habits of dragging one foot after the other and treading on the heel. Indeed, she lifts just a wee bit at the knee. Verily, almost a Parisienne! In her tailor-made gowns one marks her diligent study of Gosé's illustrations in the comic weeklies, and of all the other translators of the *Bois de Boulogne* for the Unter den Linden public.

But for all that, when she appears in all her glory one can see how little at ease she is in this equipment of *Je-m'en-fiche* of the Bois and the Boulevards. From what latent instincts indeed could she muster the unconscious taking everything for granted, the animal sovereignty, and hub of the universe assurance that lends the Parisienne her dash, her brilliance, her supremacy? When the *Berlinerin* trots along at the side of her youthful swain who is sartorially an American but in full atavistic consciousness of his Teutonic mastership of the *Braut*, she is all modesty, submission and sweetness. And her dear, good German shrimplike heart bleeds when he in the first stage of his ardor orders a taxicab. For sweet though it be to her new woman of the world vanity to drive off in state, the feeling of duty and economy bred of

generations in pure, still byways is rooted in her very feet and will not away for all the waving of her *Pleureuse* crest! For her soul does not ascend to the proud heights of her plumes. Thank heavens! Behave as she like, be her raiment as it may, under the lure of French fashion the good old-fashioned German mother's heart beats on faithful and steadfast. From the ribbons and gauds of the mischievous French kitten, the dear old German temperament—the woman's slow calm—has nothing to fear. The maid of 1911 would like best to darn her sweetheart's socks if darning were not too symbolic—irreverent, almost Biblical.

Herr Paul Barchan ends his hopeful prediction for the coming *hausfrau* with an exclamation from Heine. The lindens in Berlin's springtime bring out Heine as inevitably as the summer girl but both are this time in French attire.

"*Grattez l'élegant* and you will find the goose! The dear, kind, true and honest German goose.

"*Ma foi*, but that is good!"

JOURNALISM AND THE FUTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

IN the London *Contemporary Review*, Mr. J. E. G. de Montmorency reminds the English-writing press in general and that of England in particular of a serious responsibility which it is given to ignore; namely, the responsibility of controlling, for good or for evil, the future of the English tongue. Certain languages have so stamped their personality on the human race that though dead they are alive forevermore. Greek, Hebrew, Latin, and Sanscrit are among these; and English and Italian will in time be added to them. As it is known that the ancient languages have grown and changed, and may possibly be passing on to dissolution, Mr. de Montmorency submits for discussion the question whether the English language has passed its prime, and is hurrying on "into new and apparently barbarous variations."

The problem is a difficult one. No other language, not even Sanscrit, has suffered such experiences as those which English is now undergoing. No longer merely the tongue of a little island in the north Atlantic, it is now a world-wide medium of thought and commerce. The task laid upon it is such a one as no other language has been asked to perform.

It has to endure the environment of the North American Continent, a region that is apparently capable of turning the black man white, and the white man red. In South Africa it has to compete with, and combine with, a dialect of the Dutch tongue, which has itself been modified by local conditions. . . . In other parts of Africa environment must also play its part. In Australia and in New Zealand, again, entirely different environments, must play a novel part in the lives of the people, and therefore in their tongue. The influence of India and the East we cannot neglect since we remember that English will be the language of the educated Indian of to-morrow. . . . The same is true of the Chinese. If the Far East

It must be admitted that the geographical and racial aspects of the problem are sufficiently overwhelming. But there is another burden laid upon the already overburdened language. The specialist is forsaking Latin and is choosing English as his medium of communication; and so desperate are the straits of some of the philosophers that they have been compelled to use special printing type for special meanings. Beyond "the joint assaults of many races, new environments, and merciless specialists," however, and more alarming than them all, is the fact that English "has to tolerate the embraces of the journalists of the whole earth." Says Mr. de Montmorency:

Journalism is a good thing, and it might be a better thing. It is (in this country) honest and powerful, and it really does want to make the world a great deal better than it found it. But journalism has to do with many specialists, of kinds quite other than the scientific experts. . . . Many trades possess their own newspapers, and all possess their own vocabulary. Each sport has its own technical terms. . . . with the result that great numbers of painful technical words are imported into the spoken and written language.

Now if these words were merely spoken, they would doubtless die out, as a fashion changes. There is "no perpetuity in bonnets, and there used to be none in the shifting slang of the mart, the exchange, or the playing-field"; and "to adopt many of these hideous words into the language is comparable to the permanent use of crinoline."

Yet the Press tends to give a permanent value to words, and phrases, and even ungrammatical constructions, that are part of the stock-in-trade of the professions, or the trades, or the players of

the world. . . . Many thousands of jargons are straining the mother language in every direction, and the press is making the strain a permanent force, when it should be an evanescent trouble.

Assuming that we have to tolerate "the horrible shorthand of science, trade, and sport, and have to reckon with it as one of the forces that is threatening the existence of the language, "what is the press doing to counteract these besetting evil influences? *We must look to the press to save or ruin the language.* To quote Mr. de Montmorency further:

Does the press, in its leading and its special articles, and by means of its enormous organization, exercise the deliberate influence for the literary good of the language that the English-speaking race has the right to expect? In the case of certain editors and certain very well-known journalists, there can be no doubt that a deliberate effort is made to prevent the fouling of the well which is now taking place. But this is not true of the press generally, and it is not true of the press as an organized institution. The reckless use of adjectives in leading articles, in descriptive articles, as well as in the newspaper bills, is a disgrace to a literary people. The abuse of the adjective

by the entire press; the absence of responsibility as to the meaning of words; the looseness of construction in sentences; the entire neglect of English as a means of conveying exact ideas, are a disgrace to our press. Moreover, the worst offenders are in London. The provincial newspapers have often a sense of literature that is totally absent from a large portion of the London press. The reason is clearly not the pressure of time. It is true that leading articles are often written in haste, but, perhaps for this reason, they are often written in good, terse English. The offenders write themselves down in turgid special articles, that display the mind of a barn-yard cock.

The solution of the whole problem is in the hands of the journalists. In all other professions, severe tests are imposed before a man or woman can practice. In journalism "every quack is allowed to impose his quackery on the public." No man or women should be allowed to exercise the profession of journalism until he or she has passed a searching examination in English literature and in the use of the English language. Such examinations might be held by the Chartered Institute of Journalists.

BERLIN AND PARIS, TWO MODERN FRENCH OPINIONS

I.—Berlin and Its People

FROM its beginnings, in a small fishing village which sprang up by a ford across the Spree in the twelfth century, until its attainment of the proud position of capital of the German Empire, Berlin presents a history more checkered than those of most the capitals of Continental Europe. There was nothing to indicate Berlin as the center of Germany. Ethnographically Berlin is on the German frontier. It is a colony of the Germanic race. The true Germany is on the Rhine and the Danube. Their city, torn by civil conflict; occupied on three occasions by an enemy; at one time—at the close of the Thirty Years' War—the Berliners dreamed of emigrating *en masse*. In *La Revue* (Paris) M. André Tibal gives an interesting narrative of the evolution of the city. We read:

It was not until the beginning of the nineteenth century that a distinctly Berlin type of citizen appeared. The fierce struggle with the soil and with circumstances had rendered the Berliner laborious, energetic, tenacious, preoccupied with material things, eager for knowledge, practical, disdainful of culture, letters, and art, devoid of enthusiasm, skeptical, ironical, and impertinent. In brief, an unsympathetic type, regarded by other

Germans with distrust, and with which they acknowledged only a distant kinship. But the Berliners were also distinguished by a lively sense of humor, a love of order, and by an unfailing regard for duty. They knew how to obey, and they had worthy princes over them. The motto of the Hohenzollern has always been: "Do what you ought."

The elevation of Berlin to the rank of capital of the Empire coincided with the advent of a new era of European life. No part of this transformation was more remarkable than that of Germany, and in no part of Germany was there more marked change than in Berlin. The population increased from 700,000 in 1867 to 1,000,000 in 1877; from 1,500,000 in 1888 to 2,600,000 in 1903; the present total being about 3,000,000.

The political capital became the industrial as well as the financial capital, and the center of an immense network of exchanges. It became also the center of the new mentality, of that which was termed "Americanism." The reason was simple: Berlin had always been an "American" city; the spirit of its citizens was as enterprising, as rugged, as prosaic and as devoid of prejudice as that of the settlers of the Far West. . . . From 1871 to 1880 there extended throughout Germany and through Berlin in particular a feverish period which has received the name of *Gründerzeit* (Bubble-period).

Industrial and commercial enterprises of the most venturesome description sprang up like mushrooms in a night. The kitchen gardens of the Tempelhof were purchased by land societies; the peasant owners, becoming rich in a day by the increased value of their land, were overwhelmed by their sudden acquisition of fortune; the crowd of Berliners migrated to the suburb of Tempelhof, where many-storied houses now reared themselves on high; and the Tempelhof people migrated to Berlin, there to become the prey of sharpers and adventurers. The State erected barracks and hospitals; factories raised their brick walls and tramways were laid from the capital to the new suburb.

With the great increase of population after 1871, Berlin was, so to speak, colonized a second time. The majority of the New-Berliners were those who came to seek their fortune in the capital. Unfortunately they acquired it too quickly, and they created a middle class which gives the tone to the capital, and whose members "have all the faults and the vices of parvenus."

Of the Emperor, M. Tibal paints the following word picture:

The present Hohenzollern suffers from the influence of his capital. Whereas William I by his *esprit* was the emperor of a nation of soldiers and aristocrats, William II, in spite of his entourage and his uniforms, is the emperor of a nation of bourgeois, of merchants and manufacturers. . . . Many of the faults and follies of the Emperor are due to the fact that he is a Berliner on the throne. Like his subjects in his capital, he loves pomp and show; he speaks too much and too loud, often ADVISEDLY. Like the Berliners he cannot keep still, is nervous, ever embarking upon some new enterprise. Moreover, like them he lacks taste and has evoked a never-failing source of raillery by the statues and monuments with which he has disfigured their city.

Of the Berliners themselves M. Tibal speaks hardly more complimentarily.

The Berliner loves his house for its façade only. He spends in it only such time as is absolutely necessary for eating and drinking. Family life is but little developed. There are no circles of friends and relations. . . . The intimacy of home, for the Berliner, consists in sitting in his shirt-sleeves and slippers and in smoking a cigar in his bed-chamber.

As housewife, his spouse has great qualities; but she does not know how to make the dwelling comfortable and inviting. Like her husband, she is at once parsimonious and prodigal. She is full of pretensions; impolite to her equals and cruelly embarrassed in the presence of her superiors. She confounds affectation with good manners, and the world with the demi-monde. (I speak naturally of the middle class.)

It must be frankly stated that the men show no respect for women. There is no city where honest women have more to suffer in the street, in the tramways, and on the highways, from the insolence of the males. It seems that here the men consider any unaccompanied woman as their legitimate prey. . . .

Of Berlin architecture, M. Tibal has nothing good to say. It is "the triumph of industrialism in architecture." Unscrupulous architects, eager to produce quickly, have servilely copied the styles of every people and every epoch. Scandinavian is seen side by side with Moorish and Hellenic, without regard to climate, light, or the conditions of modern life. It is "an architecture for parvenus who desire pseudo-palaces of brick, plaster, and stucco."

Having said so much that is uncompromisingly unfavorable, M. Tibal considers that he ought to say something favorable of Berlin and its citizens. He proceeds:

The condemnation and the eulogy of this city may be summed up in a single sentence: Berlin is a modern city, the most modern of all the cities of Europe. Its faults are not those of old age and decadence, but of youth and progress. Beneath these deformities and these follies, one detects an irresistible force of expansion which gives promise of great things. It remains for the citizens to create new ideals of worth, of esthetics and of morals.

II.—The Beauty of Paris

It is pleasant to turn to another article in the same magazine describing an interview with the famous sculptor Auguste Rodin. The narrator, M. Paul Gsell, the well-known critic, states that he was driving one morning with Rodin to the latter's studio in Paris. As Rodin gazed toward the city, bathed in the spring sunshine, he exclaimed:

How enchanting! What an adorable city! She allures and she intoxicates. One cannot love her moderately. One cherishes her as a gigantic and tutelary kinswoman. Is she not mother of us all? Does she not instruct us by the contemplation of the thousand marvels with which she is adorned? She is the head and visage of one of the most fortunate regions of the earth: the divine Isle of France. Her ancient edifices are full of charm. They are of different styles according to the taste of the centuries in which they were erected, but all resembling one another by a sort of joyous affability. . . . Paris teaches us grace, common-sense, proportion, and all the virtues which form the prize of social existence.

M. Gsell reminded his companion that every day some hotel of the 17th or 18th century was being destroyed; or that some impious addition or restoration was disfiguring the ancient masterpieces. To this, M. Rodin rejoined:

It is true. Paris, like all the great cities, suffers from vandalism. But why demolish? The old Parisian hotels . . . have an elegance that cannot be excelled. The artists who constructed them sought to please. The dwellings that they created

announced from their exteriors the refined politeness of their owners and adapted themselves to their spirit as a garment to a body. . . . The old principles have fallen into oblivion. They were very simple. Our elders knew that architecture was, like music and literature, a language. They knew that it ought to appeal not only to material wants, but that it should convey the sentiments of joy or gravity, of pomp or modesty, of courage or mystery. They knew that doors, windows, pilasters, friezes, roofs, are as the touches on a great key-board with which the constructor makes a vibrant melody. . . . We must preserve the ancient dwellings. The commonest of them contains an educative virtue lacking in the more sumptuous mansions of to-day.

CHINA'S ATTEMPT TO TAKE A CENSUS

THE population of the great Middle Kingdom has always been an unknown quantity. The figures (433,553,030) issued by the Chinese Government as the results of an estimate made for the purposes of the apportionment of the indemnity to the Powers, were thought to be greatly in excess of the actual inhabitants. Works of reference place the total anywhere between 300,000,000 and 450,000,000. One of our ministers to China, Mr. Rockhill, in 1905, considered 270,000,000 to be nearer the mark. Mr. Rockhill's successor, Minister W. J. Calhoun, forwarded under date of May 4, 1911, a report prepared by a student interpreter at Peking on the results of a census of the Chinese Empire, completed in January last by the Chinese Board of the Interior. An analysis of this appears in the *Oriental Review* (New York) from which we give some condensed extracts.

The population of the entire empire is given as 329,542,000; that of China proper at 304,003,000, made up as follows:

China proper.....	304,003,000
Metropolitan district.....	5,671,000
Manchuria.....	14,917,000
Hsinchiang.....	2,491,000
Manchu military organization.....	1,700,000
Dependencies.....	760,000
Total.....	329,542,000

A native estimate, printed in the *China Tribune* (Tientsin), places the total at 438,425,000.

Referring again to Mr. Calhoun's figures, the population of Peking is returned as

1,017,209, and that of the metropolitan district as 4,654,219, neither of these items being included in China proper. Although far from perfect, compared with Western standards, the census of 1910 is probably the most accurate hitherto taken. The degree of its accuracy, however, rests entirely on the accuracy of the estimate of the size of the average family. This varies from 4.2 in the province of Kiangsi to 8.4 in each of the provinces of Kirin and Heilungschiang. No attempt to count the number of individuals throughout the empire was made, the general enumeration being limited to a toll of households. It should be stated that Tibet, the population of which is estimated at 6,500,000, is not included in the totals given above.

Earlier attempts at censuses, made by the Chinese Board of Revenue, have been as follows:

Census	Population
1761.....	190,257,000
1812.....	360,440,000
1842.....	413,021,000
1882.....	381,309,000
1885.....	377,636,000

None of these, however, can be accepted as data on which to base a comparison with the census of 1910. The latter, although only approximate, is in the opinion of Minister Calhoun, "worthy of a considerable amount of credence." As regards density of population, as the estimated area of China proper is 1,535,000 square miles, the average number of inhabitants per square mile is 198, while that of Manchuria is 41, the area of the latter being 365,000 square miles.



NOTES ON BUSINESS AND INVESTMENTS

A Warning to Investors

THE newspapers continue to report the ravages of a fraudulent "investment" concern whose career was recently brought to an end by the vigilance of the Post-Office Department. The victims are said to be numerous, one being a Pennsylvania man who invested \$7,100 in worthless stock. The president of a small railroad in Pennsylvania was also an investor to the amount of \$15,000. Inspector Kincaide says that a bedridden woman was persuaded to mortgage her home to invest \$1000 in stock. Her husband was an invalid and her son was dying of consumption at the time the mortgage was made. Victims of the men under arrest exceed one thousand in number and the frauds are said to have netted them more than \$430,000.

What a pathetic picture of the hardships that are wrought by the host of financial knaves who, unfortunately, are still able to continue their nefarious business of deceiving an innocent and inexperienced public into buying worthless paper under the guise of "Investment Stock!" At the same time, what a striking commentary on the cleverness of "shady" promoters compelling enough to divert even the surplus funds of the shrewd and otherwise conservative business man into fraudulent enterprise!

In this connection it will occur again to many people to ask whether there is not some way in which such propositions may be nipped in the bud—destroyed at their very birth, before the opportunity is presented to their sponsors to collect any of their illegal tolls; some way in which an increasing proportion of the savings of the people, which have been going into worthless securities at the rate of many millions a year, may be diverted into legitimate enterprise where they will be secured against loss and where, by being honestly and judiciously employed, they will serve the twofold purpose of earning income for their owners and assisting in the nation's development.

One cannot help believing that the people themselves are at least partly responsible for the successes of these defrauding practices. Legislatures have indeed been slow in providing laws aimed at their destruction, but

publishers of many of the most influential magazines and newspapers have waged against them a relentless warfare in which, unfortunately, the number of victories won has not been justly commensurate with the amount of ammunition expended. The trouble is that there have been so many who have failed to take advantage of the financial education of the better sort which the periodical press has made available, especially during the last five years or more, even to the humblest of investors. All too frequently it has remained for experience of the bitter kind to teach the truth of the old adage, "All is not gold that glitters." The typical prospectus of the fake mine, the imaginary oil well, the impracticable invention, the worthless plantation and so on, is still replete with the glitter, but the wily promoters are the only ones who reap the golden harvest.

On not a few occasions in the past, reference has been made in these pages to the development of banking by mail and attention has been drawn to the admirable facilities offered by those bankers who have co-operated in that development to investors, large and small, for learning the truth about securities of whatever nature and for grounding themselves in the principles of safe, sound and conservative investment. One of these bankers—the head of a large firm in the Middle West—recently wrote some pertinent comment along these lines for the pages of a little magazine which he publishes. It is well worth quoting. He says:

The first rule in investment is "Investigate." The second rule is "Investigate." The third rule is "Investigate." The fourth and fifth rules I have forgotten. But your investigation should begin with your banker. The right kind of a banking house courts investigation both of itself and of the securities it sells. . . . Safety should be the first consideration of the investor. He is determining the whole financial policy of his future when he makes his first investment, and safety should be his watchword, once and forever. He should make it a rule to satisfy himself that the investment is safe before he even thinks of its other features, such as income and convertibility into ready cash.

The industry of the "get-rich-quick" promoters would soon die a natural death if investors generally would follow some such rule as this.

The Kansas Way

FINANCIAL sharks have for the most part found it comparatively easy to avoid actual transgression of the law. In practically all cases where they have come to grief it has been by reason of the use of the United States mail for the dissemination of their alluring, yet misleading literature. But even in that connection there have been notable instances where the postal authorities have found it impossible within the scope of their inquiry as restricted by departmental regulations to show real intent to defraud, though they must have been well enough satisfied in their own minds that the enterprises were not entitled to the confidence and financial help of the investing public.

These authorities, moreover, act only upon complaint and usually after most of the damage is done and beyond repair. There must really be cold comfort to the small investor whose savings have been dissipated through the placing of his confidence in dishonest promoters merely to see the guilty ones placed behind the prison bars.

Kansas, however, seems to have hit upon a method which, to a large extent at least, will serve to forestall such operations. A few weeks ago at the request of the Bank Commissioner J. N. Dolley, the legislature of that State passed what has come to be known as the "Blue Sky" law. This provides that every seller of stock must first procure a license from the State before he can transact business with the public. In order to get the license, complete information showing the exact character of the investment must be furnished to the State's officers. Commissioner Dolley is quoted as saying recently that out of three hundred or more applications of this kind received, he had felt himself justified in granting only eighteen, or about 6 per cent. Laws that will produce such results might well find a place on more of our statute books.

Insurance Stocks

MANY adventurers in stock-jobbing enterprises are finding insurance schemes attractive bait with which to catch the savings of a large body of over-credulous investors. Recently several cases have been brought to the attention of this magazine where not a little financial embarrassment has been caused whole communities through the operations of this class of promoters. In one case there actually appeared the danger that the local bank might find itself in an undesirable posi-

tion by reason of the unusual demands made upon it by depositors for funds to purchase stock in a newly organized life insurance company of dubious standing.

Still other cases might be cited where the stock-selling agents, spurred on by their successes in other sections, have given themselves to such grossly exaggerated statements that they have been challenged by some of the harder-headed citizens, who, at the same time, have taken occasion to point out to their neighbors the inconsistencies of the sales arguments. When seriously challenged it has usually been found that the agents decamp without further effort to interest the community.

The methods of the "get-rich-quick" insurance promoter are not dissimilar to those which have long been employed by promoters of mines, oil wells, new inventions and the like. The favorite argument is to point to what other companies of the same kind have been able to accomplish in earning dividends and to the high premiums which their stocks command whenever they change ownership nowadays. For example, just as scores of inventions, of all sorts, of doubtful commercial value have been financed on the basis of the claim that they were destined to repeat the success of the Bell Telephone, so the promoters of insurance schemes are approaching prospective investors with staggering arrays of figures relating to the old and solid companies that are known throughout the world.

What they fail to make plain, of course, is the essential fact that the first duty of an insurance company is toward its policy-holders—that a long time must necessarily intervene before any company, no matter how carefully organized and efficiently managed, can provide adequate protection for them and at the same time make satisfactory returns to the stockholders.

At best, organization expenses are heavy, the cost of getting business is large and the very nature of the operations themselves entails a drain upon income against which new companies have invariably found difficulty in providing.

Perhaps the chief danger in promotions of this kind lies in the fact that in most cases the resources arising from the sale of stock are to too great an extent dissipated before business is actually begun. In other words, too large a proportion of the investors' money goes into the pockets of the stock vendors and too little into the treasury of the company. On this point Best's Bureau—the recognized authority on insurance affairs—has recently pub-

lished some significant figures. They show that of more than \$13,000,000 collected during the last six years on account of surplus for 139 new life organizations but \$7,844,000 remained—nearly 40 per cent. unaccounted for. And of still more significance from the investors' point of view, the figures show a total of only about \$320,000 paid in dividends—an average of but little more than 2 per cent. a year on \$25,280,000 of capital.

Street Improvement Bonds

EASTERN investors, whose education in "municipals" has taught them it is heresy to expect an income much if any better than 4 per cent. from that class of securities, marvel at the opportunities that are being offered to obtain 6 and 7 per cent. on bonds issued for street improvements in many of the large and important cities of the West.

"Where's the rub?" inquired one of these investors recently. "If such bonds are safe why do they bear so high a rate of interest?" These questions are typical of a substantial number of inquiries to this magazine during the past few weeks. They illustrate the greater interest which people have nowadays in high investment returns, and at the same time, the unfamiliarity of the average Easterner with conditions in that part of the country which lies beyond the Rockies.

Two reasons may be assigned for the fact that Western cities' street improvement bonds net such attractive income. First, there is the general proposition that the supply of money out there has not kept pace with the demand for it for intensive development. This has resulted in a higher average level of interest rates which borrowers of all kinds have to pay. Second, there is the general characteristic of the bonds themselves that the municipalities, as such, are not as a rule obligated to pay them principal and interest. They are not "municipal bonds" as that term is ordinarily understood.

What then is the security behind them? It is the land specially assessed to defray the cost of improvement, such as grading, curbing, laying of sidewalks, paving, etc.—improvements which are considered of local, rather than of general nature and as constituting special assets to the owners of the particular property affected.

It is the usual procedure to require the various property owners to pay into the city treasury their respective proportions of the total amount of the principal and interest of the improvement bonds and these specially

designated deposits in turn are paid out to the bondholders at stated times and in stated amounts. In most cases the payments are spread over a period of at least ten years, and the bonds are issued in "serial" form calling for the payment of such proportion of the principal each year as will extinguish the entire debt by the end of the period. In most cases also the bonds constitute a lien after taxes on the property affected and take precedence over mortgages.

It follows that the chief concern of the investor in street improvement bonds is over the character of the property which has to support the improvements. It is a matter of considerable importance to him whether the property be located in the business section of the city or in a well-established residential district where real estate values are fixed, where the income return from the property is such as to place beyond peradventure the owners' ability to pay promptly for the improvements, or whether it be located in some outlying district where values are speculative and where perhaps more than one owner may be found who is "land poor." In the latter case there is always present the possibility of default or delay in the payments on account of principal and interest of the bonds, and even though the investor might, in the end, get satisfaction in full, he would, under these circumstances, have been put to a great deal of inconvenience. It is this possibility rather than the danger of ultimate loss which appears to account largely for the high basis of net income on which such bonds sell.

Obviously, it is always to the investor's advantage personally to inspect the property which secures his bonds. The large majority unable to do this, however, have the alternative of purchasing through long-established and responsible bankers upon whose judgment more dependence may be placed than upon that of the inexperienced individual.

Corporation Shareholders

SOME impressive facts are being brought to light by the *Wall Street Journal's* inquiry as to who are the real owners of the nation's large railroads and industrial enterprises. Admittedly the inquiry was undertaken as an effort to "quash the indictments," of which so much has recently been heard, charging the big corporations with being owned by, and run entirely in the interests of, a few millionaire individuals or groups of individuals called "syndicates."

The figures thus far compiled show that steel, sugar, telephone and telegraph messages, the so-called "odd lot holders" of stocks are rubber and agricultural implements, are even in reality the ones who have it in their power more interesting:

to direct the destinies of most of the important industries. They show that the small investor has staked relatively more than has popularly been supposed upon the future of corporate enterprise in general. As this issue of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS goes to press, two hundred and twenty-four companies have reported a total number of shareholders for 1911 of 847,965, as against 422,372 five years ago, and 220,007 ten years ago.

Here are the statistics of seven of the country's representative railroad systems showing how their stockholders have increased in number since 1906:

NUMBER OF STOCKHOLDERS			
Railroad	1911	1906	Per cent. Increase
N. Y. Central.....	20,486	9,766	109.7
Pennsylvania.....	66,520	40,153	65.7
Norf. & Western.....	4,612	2,955	56.1
Mo. Kan. & Texas.....	3,342	1,018	228.2
Great Northern.....	16,969	2,702	528.0
Southern Ry.....	10,485	9,119	15.0
Atchison.....	30,000	17,420	72.2

Similar statistics relating to the nine largest industrial companies, dealing respectively in

NUMBER OF STOCKHOLDERS			
Industrial	1911	1906	Per cent. Increase
United States Steel.....	120,000	65,000	84.6
Am. Sugar Refining.....	19,551	12,312	58.8
Pullman Company.....	11,424	8,122	40.7
Am. Smelt. & Refining.....	10,455	4,505	132.1
Am. Tel. & Tel.....	41,128	17,783	131.3
U. S. Rubber.....	8,500	3,500	142.8
Internat. Harvester.....	4,100	300	1,266.7
West. Elec. & Mfg.....	8,500	2,800	203.6
Amalgamated Copper.....	13,200	7,300	78.9

But these figures do not of themselves tell the full story of the greater regard in which stocks of this character are coming to be held by the investing public. If one consider along with the changes which have taken place in the number of stockholders, the contemporaneous changes in the average number of shares owned by individual holders, the wider and better distribution becomes still more apparent.

Below we compare the present outstanding capitalization of the railroad and industrial corporations referred to, with their capitalization five years ago, and show the significant decreases in average holdings:

RAILROADS

	1911		1906	
	STOCK OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE HOLDING	STOCK OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE HOLDING
N. Y. Central.....	\$222,729,300	108.7	\$178,182,700	182.4
Penna.....	453,872,300*	68.2	305,951,350	76.0
Norf. & West.....	91,961,000	199.3	87,460,300	296.0
M. K. & T.....	76,283,257	228.1	76,300,300	750.0
Gt. Nor.....	209,981,500	123.7	149,546,050	553.1
Southern.....	180,000,000	171.6	180,000,000	197.3
Atchison.....	279,692,230	93.2	217,197,530	124.6

INDUSTRIALS

	1911		1906	
	STOCK OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE HOLDING	STOCK OUTSTANDING	AVERAGE HOLDING
U. S. Steel.....	\$868,583,600	72.4	\$868,583,600	133.6
Am. Sugar.....	90,000,000	46.0	90,000,000	73.0
Pullman.....	120,000,000	105.0	100,000,000	123.1
A. S. & R.....	100,000,000	95.6	100,000,000	221.9
Tel. & Tel.....	269,632,100	65.5	158,661,800	89.1
U. S. Rubber.....	75,000,000	88.2	71,111,600	203.5
Int. Harv.....	140,000,000	341.4	120,000,000	4,000.0
West. El. & M.....	40,186,287*	47.3	24,995,050	89.2
Amal. Copper.....	153,887,900	116.6	153,887,900	210.8

*Par of stock \$50, but computed here on the basis of \$100 par.

These statistics have some shortcomings. For instance, they do not indicate in the cases where there are two kinds of stock whether the growth of interest has been in connection with the preferred stocks, which are nearly always the more stable invest-

ment issues, or with the common stocks, which are nearly always purchased with some idea of speculation in mind. Perhaps, however, it is safe to assume that the wider connection with the preferred stocks, which appreciation is generally for the intrinsic merits of the former.

A REFERENCE LIBRARY FOR THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING WORLD

THE "ENCYCLOPAEDIA BRITANNICA" (ELEVENTH EDITION)¹

FOR almost a century and a half the "Encyclopaedia Britannica" has been the pride of British scholarship. Founded by a Scot it has passed through a succession of proprietorships until now the University of Cambridge, that ancient home of British learning, has become the foster mother, as it were, of the one great publishing enterprise which is recognized in a peculiar sense as England's own.

The present, known as the eleventh, edition of the world-famous work, is in many respects a departure from the "Britannica" which some of us knew in our school and college days, when a single revision occupied sixteen years and the youth who had just got out of knickerbockers when the wise men completed their labors on letter "A" was a staid man of family, with business or professional responsibilities, by the time "Z" was reached, and a new revision was called for.

In bringing out the Eleventh Edition wholly new methods have been employed and these have resulted in a practically simultaneous publication of the entire set of twenty-eight volumes, covering all the letters of the alphabet, leaving only the index volume to be completed later. This in itself was a great achievement. It meant a perfection of staff organization and a completeness of editorial equipment such as no like undertaking ever possessed before. Moreover, it should be noted in this connection that none of the earlier editions of this work drew so heavily on non-British sources. America's representation, both in subjects treated and in the authorship of articles, would almost suggest that the old name "Britannica" be changed to "Anglo-Americanica." This, of course, necessitated the employment of an American group of editors and of many American staff contributors.

One hundred years ago biography was regarded as beneath the dignity of the ponderous "Britannica." It was a real innovation when sketches of dead Britons began to appear in its classic pages. One publisher quit the job in a huff because of this radical change. What would he say of live Britons and even live Americans? In the Eleventh Edition the practice, consistently followed for many years, of excluding all living persons from the biographical record has been overruled. Greatness is no longer compelled to achieve the common oblivion of us all in order to gain recognition in the "Britannica's" authoritative pages. In range of material, biography now forms one of the richest departments of the work, and the American representation in this as in other features of the encyclopaedia leaves little to be desired. No other work of like scope contains so many sketches of commanders in our Civil War, both Federal and Confederate. All in all, no other general reference work with which the present writer is familiar is so satisfactory in its treatment of American biography in general.

Other American subjects receive in the present edition a degree of attention that was never ac-

corded them before. The "Britannica" is not and should not be a gazeteer, yet its editors have made a remarkably comprehensive selection of geographical topics. In turning its pages one is almost startled to find a column of information about his native town in the Middle West,—a place that had never been thought worthy of so much as a "stickful" of type in any American reference book. In other and more important fields of knowledge the same catholicity of selection and treatment has been observed. Perhaps it is an indication of the relatively more important place that America holds to-day in the world's civilization, as well as a tribute to the editorial genius that conceived and brought to fruition this monumental work, that every one of the twenty-eight volumes is alive with the intellectual and material progress of the new world. It was once a complaint in this country, which was not without some justification, that the "Britannica" remained insular in its viewpoint and contracted in its range. This complaint no longer holds good. American institutions and progress are so fully presented in the pages of the Eleventh Edition, and this presentation is made so largely through the contributions of American writers, that the old charge of insular narrowness may be dismissed and forgotten.

On the other hand, those features of the "Britannica" that made it long ago the great repository of learning for the English-speaking race are preserved and strengthened in the new edition to a remarkable degree. In the domain of science the encyclopaedia loses nothing of its authoritative character. Some of the articles, it is true, are briefer than in former editions, and one notes a tendency to avoid overloading with technical details. It would be a great mistake, however, to infer that these topics are cursorily treated. One reason why some of the articles are shorter is that the old practice of gathering all material under a general head into one article has been, to a great extent, abandoned for the more practical and common-sense method of treating the specific topics subordinate to a single large department of knowledge under separate heads. Under abstract philosophical themes one no longer looks for descriptions of concrete developments, but these are found under their proper specific titles. In many other ways, to which it is impossible to allude here, the "Britannica" has been completely modernized, and made a practical and useful ally of the busy man of affairs as well as of the scholar and man of letters. The twenty-eight volumes, as now arranged, form not only a great storehouse of twentieth-century learning, but a useful, working library which goes far to meet the needs of any man or woman who desires to partake in some degree of "the best that has been thought and said in the world."

¹ The Encyclopaedia Britannica. Edited by Hugh Chisholm. Cambridge University Press (Branch office of publication, New York). 29 volumes, illustrated. \$4 each.

THE NEW BOOKS

THE MODERN STATE

WITH so much talk and writing about the realization of a world state as has been brought forth during the past few years, particularly at this moment, when the Senate has been considering the epoch-making treaties of arbitration with Great Britain and France, there is particular interest and profit for the student of world politics in Dr. David Jayne Hill's volume, "World Organization as Affected by the Nature of the Modern State."¹ Dr. Hill has been working out for years his theory that modern international relations show a growth of what he terms jural consciousness among all the civilized nations; that the modern state embodies this consciousness; and that it is the earnest of the future world state. By world organization Dr. Hill means "the task of so uniting governments in the support of the principles of justice as to apply them not only within the limits of the state, but also between states." In developing his idea, Dr. Hill considers "The State as an Embodiment of Law"; "The State as a Juristic Person"; "The State as a Promoter of General Welfare"; "The State as a Member of Society"; "The State as a Subject of Positive Law"; "The State as a Mediator of Guarantees"; "The State as an Armed Power"; and "The State as a Justiciable Person." As a conclusion to his scholarly, closely woven argument, Dr. Hill asserts that "the development of the modern state has greatly facilitated the mutual understanding of the nations, and has both deepened and enlarged their sense of community." While the process is not yet ended, Dr. Hill believes that we may reasonably entertain the hope that within the next three centuries "the energies of mankind may be more and more diverted from plans and preparations for mutual destruction, and devoted to united helpfulness in overcoming vice, misery, disease and ignorance—the common enemies of mankind." The chapters of this book were originally eight lectures delivered before the Columbia University, on the Carpenter Foundation, in March of the past year. They embody the ripened thought of many years of study and research, and complement, as it were, Dr. Hill's other monumental work brought out some years ago, "A History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe."

WAGNER'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY

The authorized translation from the German of the Wagner autobiography has at last appeared. This two-volume work entitled "My Life,"² rendered into English from the notes of the great composer as dictated to his wife, Cosima Wagner, sets forth in simple, telling language the "unadorned veracity" of the composer's private life and public achievements. Since the value of this, as the composer says himself in the preface, consists in its detailed truthfulness, all the statements had to be accompanied by precise names and dates. Therefore the great music master refused to have the

autobiography published until after his death. He reveals his very heart itself in all its big sincerity in his tributes to the sympathy and support of the hosts of friends, including Liszt, whose health enabled him to make his music dreams come true. All his hopes and fears, his greatnesses and pettinesses, are set forth without fear or hesitancy. A perusal of the work will quite destroy the faith of those who have placed Wagner among the gods. It will show his faulty humanity, but, at the same time, it cannot fail to arouse admiration for the almost divine patience and perseverance with which the composer held his way along the wearisome road of suffering, domestic infelicity, and baffled hopes, until he had achieved the mountain heights of his art. The closing chapter gives an account of the eleventh hour rescue that came from the King of Bavaria. The frontispiece of the first volume is a portrait of Wagner as he appeared in 1842, and that of the second a reproduction of the well-known painting made in 1872, by the artist Lenbach.

TWO OF THE SUMMER'S NOVELS

For one reason or another, the male characters in W. J. Locke's novels have made a more distinct impression on the minds of his readers than his women characters. Such creations as "Marcus" and "The Beloved Vagabond" could not fail to dominate the stories into which they entered. In Mr. Locke's latest effort, "The Glory of Clementina,"³ this distinction passes from hero to heroine, for in "Clementina" herself is concentrated all the verve of the narrative. A new type of English heroine Clementina undoubtedly is,—a mature woman when the story opens, successful in her career as an artist, odd and brusque of manner, frank and outspoken to a degree, yet devoted wholeheartedly to the happiness of others, and finally, just short of forty, falling in love in the most artless, old-fashioned way and revealing the unsuspected "glory" of genuine womanhood. Such is "Clementina," and in depicting her unusual—possibly even abnormal—traits Mr. Locke is at his best. "Dr. Quixtus," is not wholly unfamiliar to the readers of this author's earlier novels, and the other characters, while engaging, call for no special comment.

"Love's Pilgrimage,"⁴ Mr. Upton Sinclair's new novel, is one of the frankest stories dealing with the marriage institution that we have ever seen. It is called, in the advertising prospectus, "an extraordinarily able specialized study of two egos working toward adjustment." It does indeed deal with certain fundamental human physical and emotional experiences, set forth with Mr. Sinclair's truly splendid contempt of sham. The hero and heroine, however, not being normal beings, but highly over-sensitive creatures, the interpretation the author attempts of their emotional crises is not likely to contribute much toward the solution of the problems of mankind and woman-kind in general. The style is closely woven and the interest well sustained throughout the more than six hundred pages of the story.

¹ World Organization and the Modern State. By Dr. David Jayne Hill. New York: Columbia University Press. 214 pp. \$1.50.

² My Life. By Richard Wagner. Dodd, Mead & Co. 2 vols., 1454 pp., ill. \$8.50.

³ The Glory of Clementina. By W. J. Locke. Lane. 387 pp. \$1.30.

⁴ Love's Pilgrimage. By Upton Sinclair. Mitchell Kennerley. 663 pp. \$1.35.

ESSAYS AND LITERARY CRITICISM

"A Defense of Prejudice and Other Essays," by John Grier Hibben, Professor of Logic, Princeton University,¹ argues for a new mental attitude toward that activity of the human mind known as prejudice, and includes, with other valuable material, a discussion of the philosophical theories of Fichte, as opposed to the Zarathustrionism of Nietzsche. Professor Hibben seeks the reason for considering prejudice as an intruder among the sober activities of the human mind, and contends that it admits of a rational defense. Since all truth rests more or less upon a credit basis, may we not give place to prejudice, the action of a subconscious reasoning? A man's prejudices determine the timbre of his character. What were the immortal Johnson of Boswell, or Carlyle, without their prejudices? Mr. Hibben regards the universe, with Fichte, as the objectified will of man, knowledge as a living spirit. The chapters entitled "The Dialectic Imagination" and "The Superfluous in Education" are of particular value to educators. Mr. Hibben's style is lucid, his choices of words happy in their simplicity. The essays are as readable as those of the late Professor James.

The history of the development of the English novel is set forth by William J. and Coningsby W. Dawson in "The Great English Novelists," a two-volume edition of selected scenes from the masterpieces of fiction.² The introductory essay and notes give careful attention to the evolution of literary taste as expressed in the novel. The selections are arranged according to subject and portray love scenes, historic personages, epics of conflict, humor, and the place of children in fiction. Marion Crawford writes: "A novel is after all a play, and perhaps it is nothing but a substitute for a play with live characters, scene shifting and footlights." Upon the basis of this theorem, "The Great English Novelists" is a program of the best acts of the novels that have become classics.

Thomas Hill Green, late master of Balliol College, Oxford, is best known for his translations of Plato and his attack upon the materialistic philosophy of David Hume. This month brings us a reprint of one of his essays "The Value and Influence of Works of Fiction,"³ an essay much used by advanced classes in the theory of prose fiction and especially valuable because written from a philosophical point of view. In this work, we leave the material of fiction for the analysis of its message; we proceed from the husk of mere words to the beauty and truth which they contain. Green considered the novel to be the great leveller of intellects and creator of public sentiment. The appendix contains selections from the "Memoirs" of Green by R. L. Nettleship and a quotation from Hegel which upholds Green's views concerning fiction and its values.

Among the collections of essays this month, we have a volume entitled "Miscellaneous Studies," by Mr. Walter Pater.⁴ Earlier in the year "Greek Studies" was issued, which dealt with Mr. Pater's contribution to the study of Greek art, mythology, and poetry. This later volume has no unifying principle, but consists of scattered contributions

to periodicals, which no doubt Mr. Pater, had he lived, would have subjected to revision before permitting them to appear in permanent form. Students of Mr. Pater will be glad of this collection as it contains many essays of exceeding beauty, hitherto accessible only in the files of magazines. "Prosper Mérimée and Pascal," "Raphael and Art Notes in Northern Italy," "The Child in the House," "Apollo in Picardy," and (added with some hesitation, the editors confess), the early essay, "Diaphaneite." This last was one of the papers that first made Mr. Pater's unique literary gifts known to the circle of his Oxford friends. Among the so-called euphonists, the stylists, Pater stands for the sexless beauty of form in literary art and his productions may be compared to sculptured figures. It is easy to image Stevenson as a painter, dabbling on canvas the vivid coloring of his stories of adventure, or Hilaire Belloc mixing the palette of a Puvis de Chavannes; but Pater works in marble. It is often tinted couleur de rose, or veined with delicate and shadowy stenciling; but marble it is—perfected as Pater writes of the art of Raphael, by "a thousand reverential touchings."

The Columbia University Press issues a volume of lectures on the art of literature.⁵ The preface—"Approaches to Literature,"—is by Prof. Brander Matthews and the lectures are by other members of the faculty of Columbia University. They deal with different phases of the ancient and modern literature of every race and nation. The chapters, "The Renaissance," by Jefferson B. Fletcher, and "Indo-Iranian Languages," by A. V. W. Jackson, possess great charm of style, a quality very desirable in lectures intended for publication. Professor Trent contributes a chapter, "The Cosmopolitan Outlook," and Professor Spingarn concludes the collection with a paper on "Literary Criticism." There is insistence upon the fact that—"All passes; Art alone, enduring, stays to us."

BOOKS OF VERSE

"American History by American Poets,"⁶ edited by Nellie Urner Wellington, the author of "Historic Churches of America," is a collection of patriotic poems dealing with the birth and growth of the nation from the time of the Norsemen down to the close of the Revolution. Several specimens of rare historical poetry may be found in this volume,—Arthur Guiterman's "Quivira," "The Death of Goody Nourse," by Rose Terry, and Barrett Eastman's stirring ballad, "How We Burned the Philadelphia." For school and reference purposes, this volume is admirable and the material is arranged with taste and judgment. The appendix contains notes concerning the historical basis of the poems.

"Shapes of Clay" and "Black Beetles in Amber" are volumes of verse from the collected works of Mr. Ambrose Bierce.⁷ Mr. Bierce's ability as a satirist is well known and this fugitive verse published in periodicals and newspapers is worthy of perusal for its comment on current events, its keen satire and ironical humor. A writer of less forcefulness might hesitate to preserve in permanent form the mixture of stab and balm found in these newspaper rhymes; but the bitterness that

¹ A Defense of Prejudice and Other Essays. John Grier Hibben. Charles Scribner's Sons. 183 pp. \$1.

² The Great English Novelists. 2 vols. By William J. and Coningsby W. Dawson. Harper & Bros. 343 pp. \$1.50.

³ The Value of Works of Fiction. By Thomas Hill Green. Ann Arbor Press. 90 pp. 65 cents.

⁴ Miscellaneous Studies. By Walter Pater. Macmillan Company. 254 pp. \$2.

⁵ Lectures on Literature. By Members of the Faculty of Columbia University. Columbia University Press. 404 pp. \$2.

⁶ American History by American Poets. Edited by Nellie Urner Wellington. Duffield & Co. 455 pp. \$1.

⁷ The Collected Works of Ambrose Bierce. 4 vols. Neale Publishing Company. 375 pp. \$25.

so often underlies the dash and verve of Mr. Bierce's fluent pen is the righteous indignation that refuses to keep silence in the presence of false pretense and injustice. The lines "Æsthetics" and "To Oscar Wilde," written in 1883, are excellent specimens of Mr. Bierce's cleverness, in discerning the trend of public sentiment.

A little volume of poems, most of them written with the unquenchable buoyancy of youth, but with some fine poetic lines, comes from the pen of Shaemas O Sheel, under the title "The Blossomy Bough."¹ The two poems: "The Poet Praises His Lady's Bright Beauty" and "They Went Forth to Battle But They Always Fell" are particularly fine in thought and diction.

MEMORIALS OF STEVENSON

The letters of the late Robert Louis Stevenson are offered in a new edition rearranged in four volumes, with the one hundred and fifty new letters selected and edited by his friend Sidney Colvin.² Six years before Stevenson's death, he gave his stepson, Mr. Lloyd Osbourne, a sealed paper to be delivered after his death to Mr. Colvin. When the end came and the papers were opened, it was found to contain a request that Mr. Colvin prepare for publication selections from his letters and a sketch of his life. In 1895 the "Vailima Letters" were published and in the autumn of 1899, the "Letters to His Family and Friends," while the task of writing Stevenson's life was given over to his cousin, Mr. Graham Balfour, who completed it two years later. The one hundred and fifty new letters date from all periods of Stevenson's life and are not weightily concerned with the private affairs of either Stevenson or his friends. They are in main about himself—"confessions, speculations, gay notes and observations, snatches of remembrance and autobiography, moralizing on matters uppermost for the moment in his mind, comments on his own work or other people's, or mere idle fun and foolery." In style they are conversational, detached of utterance and free of vocabulary, often peep-holes into the domains of his fascinating yarns. The earlier letters, notably those penned to his mother, reveal him as Ariel—quick with a "spirit of air and fire." A nostalgia of spirit breathes from the letters in later years—a yearning that drove him to devise means to make life livable for others, because he had found it to be a continual battle against physical depression and weakness.

In a letter to Henley he writes a rhythmic invocation to art, ending with "Enter God," and adds below,—"Ay, but you know, until a man can write that,—Enter God,—he has made no art." Bits of verse are interspersed freely throughout the letters—verse less charming, less musical than his prose. The following lines of prose, from a letter to the Hawaiian Princess Kaiulani, during her visit to Scotland, are exceptional for their musical quality. "Written in April to Kaiulani, in the April of her age, and at Waikiki, within easy walk of Kaiulani's Banyan. When she comes to my land and to her father's and the rain beats on the window (as I fear it will) let her look at this page—it will be like a weed, gathered and pressed at home, and she will remember her islands and the

shadow of the mighty tree, and she will hear the peacock's screaming in the dusk and the wind blowing in the palms, and she will think of her father sitting there alone."

Along with the new edition of the "Letters," comes another Stevenson volume—"Lay Morals and Other Papers," with a preface by Mrs. Stevenson.³ The essay, "Lay Morals," is the projected treatise on morals which was drafted at Edinburgh in 1879, and with it are included several unfinished stories and the famous pamphlet written in defense of Father Damien. This unfinished work of Stevenson's is the saddest thing he has left to us; it is like a web left on a loom, the pattern incomplete, the shuttle half drawn through the warp, the bobbin's lying in an idle tangle of colors. Its import passes beyond our comprehension—into the world of the inchoate, the unborn; it rests within the dust of him who sleeps at Vailima.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH

"A White-Paper Garden," by Sara Andrew Shafer,⁴ is a story of a garden on paper—a garden that existed only in the heart and love of a woman shut up in the city, far away from tree and blossom. It is divided into twelve essays, one on each month of the year, and is illustrated with really beautiful photographic reproductions of garden scenes. The inscription reads "To everyone who ever gave me a flower," and the pages are filled with the joy and beauty of the flowering earth, with gardens for the gardenless. It fulfills the purpose of its making, if as John Henry Newman says—"By a garden, is meant mystically a place of spiritual repose, stillness, peace, refreshment, delight." There is much of helpfulness and cheerful philosophy in this volume, wearing the disguise of garden lore.

"Some Essentials in Musical Definitions for Historical Students," by M. F. McConnell,⁵ is a compilation of definite musical information in available form, for the use of students. Its arrangement is admirable, its definitions concise and free from danger of misinterpretation. An appendix of the names of noted composers, performers, and "litterateurs," is included in this useful volume.

An excellent English translation of "Chushingura," one of the most famous of Japanese folk-lore romances, has been brought out by the Nakanishi-ya Book-Store in Tokyo.⁶ The original version, in lyric form, of the famous Japanese folk-story of the forty-seven Romans, is by Takeda Izumo, Miyoshi Shoraku and Namiki Senryu. The English translation, which is excellently made and bears all the marks of being a faithful rendering, is by Jukichi Inouye. The vendetta in Japan is of century long existence. It began in the early years of the Toyugawa Shogunate, and continued for more than two centuries. The action of the Chushingura took place in the year 1703, and a few months later a play founded on it was put on the stage. The illustrations in this volume are in color and in the style of the period.

¹ The Blossomy Bough. By Shaemas O Sheel. Published by Shaemas O Sheel, through the Franklin Press, New York. 104 pp. \$1.

² Letters of Robert Louis Stevenson. 4 vols. Edited by Sidney Colvin. Scribner. 1531 pp. \$4.

³ Lay Morals and Other Papers. By Robert Louis Stevenson. Scribner's. 316 pp. \$1.

⁴ A White-Paper Garden. By Sara Andrew Shafer. A. G. McClurg Co. 292 pp. \$2.50.

⁵ Some Essentials in Musical Definitions for Historical Students. Compiled by M. F. McConnell. Oliver Ditson Co. 102 pp. 75 cents.

⁶ Chushingura. By Takeda Izumo, Miyoshi Shoraku and Namiki Senryu. Translated by Jukichi Inouye. Nakanishi-ya Book-Store. 269 pp., ill. \$2.